TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the National Education Association
September - October 1973

- Vance Packard on the Effect of Rootlessness on Young People
- Ralph Tyler on Behavioral Objectives
- Henry Steele Commager on the Role of the Government
- Helen Wise on Teacher Advocacy and Professionalism
- Accountability
- Youth and Community Service
- Multiculturalism
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Our 75th Year

The Journal of the National Education Association
September-October 1973, Volume 62, Number 6

TODAY'S EDUCATION

YOUR NEW MAGAZINE

With this issue, *Today's Education* begins a new chapter in its 60-year history. NEA governance has made the official decision that for the 1973-74 school year the magazine will be a quarterly. The November-December issue will be mailed the first of November; the January-February, the first of January; the March-April, the first of March.

Most of the articles will be longer than in the past and will present in-depth exploration designed to help teachers teach. The new publication will resemble the old in that it will be a professional magazine rather than a house organ. For information on organization activities, Association members will continue to turn to the *NEA Reporter*.

Regular features added to *Today's Education* include an editorial (this month by the NEA President; in November-December, by the new NEA Executive Secretary), informal comment and an essay cartoon (coincidentally by two Baileys, unrelated), and book reviews (which will not replace such longtime favorite book lists as "Books for Children," scheduled for November-December, and "Outstanding Education Books," March-April).

Some articles in the quarterly will carry footnotes and bibliographies. All articles, whether or not they carry this visible evidence of research, will carry on the *Journal* tradition for accuracy of fact based upon thorough checking against source material.

As an aid to future planning, we seek your reactions to the new magazine. We invite you to fill in the inserted readership card and mail it to us—*today*.

Mildred Sandison Fenner
Editor

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The National Retired Teachers Association isn't what you'd expect it to be.

You'd expect an Association named the National Retired Teachers Association (NRTA) to be an organization just for retired teachers, wouldn't you?

Fortunately, that's not what it is. At least, that's not just what it is.

True, full membership in NRTA is open to retired and former educators. In fact, anyone, regardless of age, who has ever worked in the field of education, as a teacher or administrator, whether full-time or part-time, may join NRTA as a full member.

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But 300,000 members also means that NRTA has yet another kind of power—purchasing power. It means, simply enough, that you can save money by buying things through us.

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TEACHER OPINION POLL

Drugs and Drug Education

☐ **To discover how widespread the** problem of drug abuse is in schools and the extent of school activity in solving this problem, the 1973 Teacher Opinion Poll asked several questions of a representative nationwide sample of public school teachers. The first question was:

Do you have personal knowledge of the use of marijuana by pupils in your school this year? If Yes, is the use of marijuana by pupils a problem in your school?

Respondents to the second part of the question were asked if use of marijuana was a major problem, a minor problem, or no problem.

About 3 teachers in 10 responded that they knew of use of marijuana by pupils in their schools; about 1 in 4 said it was a problem; and about 1 in 25 said it was a major problem.

More than half the secondary school teachers said they knew of use of marijuana by pupils in their schools. About 7 percent said it was a major problem.

Knowledge of use of marijuana	Total	Elem.	Sec.
Yes, major problem	3.7%	0.5%	6.8%
Yes, minor problem	20.0	3.9	35.6
Yes, no problem	5.6	2.3	8.9
Yes, degree of problem not indicated	0.3	—	0.6
Total Yes	29.6	6.7	51.9
Total No	70.3	93.3	48.1

The second question was:

Do you have personal knowledge of the use of "hard drugs" (amphetamines, hallucinogens, opiates) by pupils in your school this year? If Yes, is the use of "hard drugs" by pupils a problem in your school?

About 1 teacher in 6 indicated knowledge of use of hard drugs by pupils in his school. About 1 in 7 said it was a problem, and about 1 in 50 said it was a major problem.

Nearly 30 percent of secondary school teachers said they knew of use of hard drugs by pupils in their schools. About 25 percent said it was a problem, and about 4 percent said it was a major problem.

Knowledge of use of hard drugs	Total	Elem.	Sec.
Yes, major problem	2.1%	0.1%	4.1%
Yes, minor problem	11.4	1.7	20.7
Yes, no problem	2.4	1.0	3.7
Total Yes	15.9	2.8	28.5
Total No	84.1	97.2	71.5

About 18 percent of both urban and suburban teachers were aware of the use of hard drugs by pupils, a slightly higher proportion than for teachers in rural schools.

About one-fifth of the teachers in the largest school systems but only half as many teachers in the smallest systems reported that they were aware of the use of hard drugs by pupils.

This question was also asked:

In your opinion, should education about drugs be a part of the curriculum in your school system? If Yes, how should education about drugs be treated?

Teachers generally agreed that drug education should be part of the curriculum. Nearly half thought it should be integrated with the subject matter of one or more other subjects; about 1 in 4 thought it should be a special unit of work within another subject; and about 1 in 10 thought it should be taught separately.

Teach about drugs?	Total	Elem.	Sec.
Yes, as a separate subject	11.7%	10.2%	13.1%
Yes, as a special unit of work within some other subject	26.3	24.9	27.7
Yes, integrated with the subject matter of one or more other subjects	47.7	51.7	43.9
Yes, other or not indicated	2.1	1.9	2.4
Total Yes	87.8	88.7	87.1
Total No	4.2	3.4	5.0
Uncertain	8.0	7.9	8.0

The next question was:

Does your school have a drug education program? This question was asked of teachers who favored drug education.

About 45 percent said their school had a drug education program; about the same number said it did not; and about 11 percent were uncertain.

Drug education	Total	Elem.	Sec.
School has drug education program	45.2%	42.3%	48.1%
School does not have drug education program	43.7	45.2	43.3
Uncertain	11.1	12.5	9.6

In the Southeast, only about 3 teachers in 10 reported that their schools had a drug education program, compared with about half the teachers in other regions. However, the Southeast does not have as serious a problem as other regions.

Teachers in schools having a drug education program were then asked in what grade it is first taught and in what grade they thought it should first be taught. More than half these teachers thought that drug education should first be taught below grade 4; however, only about one-quarter of these teachers said it did begin below grade 4 in their schools.

Teachers in schools having a drug education program were asked, "How would you rate the success of the programs?" Four choices were listed, but no evidence of success was suggested or requested.

Just under half the teachers rated the program fair, and slightly fewer rated it good or excellent.

Rating of success of drug education program	Total	Elem.	Sec.
Excellent	3.8%	5.1%	2.7%
Good	38.7	44.9	33.6
Fair	46.1	42.6	48.9
Poor	11.4	7.4	14.8

About half the teachers in the smallest school systems rated the drug education program good or excellent; and about half the teachers in the largest school systems rated the program fair.

Rating of success of drug education program	Size of system: 25,000 or more	3,000-24,999	Under 3,000
Excellent	4.3%	3.7%	2.4%
Good	32.9	38.4	48.0
Fair	49.7	45.8	39.8
Poor	13.0	12.0	9.8

—NEA Research.

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Production and Business Consultant: Paul E. Bergman
Circulation Manager: R. K. Butler, Jr.
Advertising Manager: Robert F. O'Connor
DESIGN BY JAMES J. FISHER

ADVERTISING OFFICES:

Washington, DC 20036—*Today's Education*, 1201 16th St., N.W.; (202) 833-4110.

New York 10017—Robert Nelson & Associates, Suite 830, 342 Madison Ave.; (212) 661-9234.

Chicago (Northfield), IL 60093—Jack Broderick, Lou Didier, Tom Smith, Ralph Sullivan, 550 Frontage Rd., P.O. Box 327; (312) 446-9571.

San Francisco, CA 94104—Blanchard-Nichols & Smith, 582 Market St.; (415) 986-6341.

Los Angeles, CA 90057—Blanchard-Nichols & Smith, 1830 West 8th St.; (213) 388-6134.

Atlanta, GA 30342—Miller & Tillman, Inc., 130 West Wieuca Rd., N.E.; (404) 252-9588.

Boston (Lexington), MA 02173—Peter A. Boeing, 18 Muzzey St.; (617) 862-7479.

Philadelphia (Media), PA 19063—Daniel Adams, P.O. Box 197; (215) 565-2222.

Dayton, OH 45402—Peter Li, Vera Snow, 38 West Fifth St.; (513) 228-8777.

Montreal, PQ, Canada 265—Lee Wm. MacDonald, 6870 Fielding Avenue, Suite 241; (514) 484-4414.

Published four times a year in September-October, November-December, January-February, and March-April by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000. TODAY'S EDUCATION® goes to all members of the Association. Annual subscription price $1.05 (included in membership dues and available only as part of membership). Single copies 80¢ each. Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and at additional mailing offices.

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POSTMASTER: PLEASE SEND POD FORM 3579 (CHANGE OF ADDRESS) TO NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1201 16th ST., N.W., WASHINGTON, DC 20036.

EDITORIAL

Is Teacher Advocacy Compatible with

By HELEN D. WISE
NEA President.

□ **I am a teacher advocate.**

For 18 years as a junior high teacher, I devoted my energy, time, and efforts toward the improvement of education and the teaching profession.

I worked outside the classroom representing teachers and inside the classroom on behalf of children.

I spent long hours at the bargaining table for my local association; I led a demonstration of thousands of teachers against a do-nothing legislature; I participated in dozens of strike rallies and all-night bargaining sessions; and I have been on many picket lines.

In short, I am a militant.

During this same period I was involved in hundreds of workshops and in-service programs. In the past 10 years, I completed my doctorate, developed an innovative program for individualized instruction using an articulated team approach, and wrote a course of study with text for slow learners. I sponsored student council activities, chaperoned school picnics and dances, and spent many hours counseling youngsters.

In other words, I am a professional teacher.

I maintain that spending time at the bargaining table working very hard to secure full rights for my fellow teachers as employees does not mean that I am less professional when I enter my classroom. By serving as an advocate for teachers through my organization, I do not lose or abandon my education, my experience, my ability, and my desire to communicate with children, or my commitment to those youngsters.

In fact, the reverse is true, for by applying my experience, knowledge, and support to my Association's determination to improve education and the profession, I fulfill a truly professional commitment.

I am an activist.

While it is recognized that many teachers throughout the nation are similarly dedicated, some would attempt to separate professionalism and militancy, contending that the NEA cannot be both an advocate organization and a professional society.

Those who make such a contention, I fear, have been intimidated too long by administrators and school boards that have branded teacher militancy as undignified. How many activist teachers have heard that trite expression, "I believe your attitude is unprofessional," from someone in the hierarchy when a colleague courageously voiced his convictions! To management, being professional is doing what you're told and not questioning higher authority.

Today, the teachers' concept of their role in society has changed, fortunately, and they have determined that their organization change with them. Accordingly, NEA is becoming as strong and powerful as it is large because it is responding to the needs and demands of the changed professionals it represents.

The professional classroom teacher is no longer the quiescent, compliant teacher of 30 or even 20 years ago. He is no longer automatically a professional because he is a teacher; he is a professional because he commands the respect of his peers, his students, and his community.

He has earned that respect because he is better prepared; he has more expert knowledge about the subject he teaches than does the school board member who seeks to rule him; he is determined to be involved in the policy decisions which affect his welfare as well as his teaching conditions; and, most importantly, he wants a career as a teacher, for he knows that to work in the classroom with children is to be at the heart of the educational process.

But reaching this stage has required militancy, for it has meant forcing two dramatic changes—moving people from a plane of apathy to a stage of activism and upsetting the power structure which has thwarted the teacher movement.

In a recent study, Ronald G. Corwin of Ohio State University found that the initiative-taking teachers—the truly professional teachers—were the most militant leaders. He concluded that one reason for this is the fact that specialization has given teachers more power: As teachers become more specialized, administrators and laymen become less competent to supervise them.

An examination of the growth of teacher organization strength bears out Corwin's findings. As teachers have become more activist-oriented, locals, state associations, and the NEA itself have become more powerful and influential.

Now, the muscle of teacher organizations must be used to become politically effective in every election throughout the country, to improve our professional status, and to establish and enforce standards in all areas which affect the quality of teaching and education.

In my home state of Pennsylvania, the state Chamber of Commerce singled out the Pennsylvania State Educa-

Professionalism?

tion Association as a prime example of "the types of services a state public employee organization can furnish to the local organization . . ."

It went on to say that "the Pennsylvania State Education Association offers to its members a staff of bargaining experts, salary schedule and contract enforcement, grievance processing, retirement consultation, legal defense, budget analysis, personnel counseling, publications, protection of rights, and many other services. Among its professional staff, the PSEA has 48 field representatives who are seasoned negotiators with hundreds of hours of experience at the table. It is doubtful that a local public employer may be so fortunate in being able to call upon such a well-financed, well-staffed organization for similar services."

This is significant tribute from an organization which generally opposes PSEA activities.

At the same time as we become activists, our profession, like all others, must not reject the responsibility for the quality of what the individual practitioner does. Yet if teachers are to be held accountable, they must have the right to set standards and then have the authority to hold school boards responsible for adhering to them. A close examination of whether employers or employees are more likely to violate school laws reveals that teachers generally are the ones who uphold regulations, and, indeed, most laws are enacted to protect teachers and the public from unscrupulous actions by school boards.

It takes teacher activism to enact professional practices and standards legislation because school boards, school administrators, and state departments generally oppose such laws, preferring instead to have the freedom to manipulate certification regulations for their own purposes.

History shows that most of the improvements in the teaching profession have come about because teachers fought for them. That teachers have not done better up to now has been the result of an ineffective power base.

However, as teacher activism grows, teacher power is strengthened. While teachers continually seek improved financial and economic status—and will succeed in achieving these goals—they will not sit quietly by and accept intolerable teaching conditions or remain mute when school boards fail to provide adequate, up-to-date teaching materials and facilities.

Teachers must be adamant about improving education for all children. They must convince the public that it is very right and very professional for teachers and teacher organizations to stand up for what is best for education and the children they teach. In fact, it is my conviction that to do otherwise is unprofessional.

I am no less committed to good education because I have been on a picket line, nor am I less dedicated to good teaching because I have been labeled a militant or an activist.

I contend that activists are less willing to moonlight in order to feed their families, thus reducing their ability to teach adequately the next day; less willing to leave teaching as a career for better paying administrative positions or some other noneducational endeavor; and less willing to accept inadequate facilities and poor working conditions.

Conversely, activists are more dedicated, more committed, more determined, through their organizations, to bring about changes in the power structure of the educational hierarchy that they know must be achieved.

Professionalism is *not* synonymous with apathy, acquiescence, and passivity. The professionalism we espouse is one of deep personal and professional commitment which will determine the educational destiny of children. The NEA has greater opportunity than any other organization to work with parents, students, administrators, and the community to improve education for all children. The NEA must continue to be the single most important spokesman not only for teachers, but for the children they teach.

Thus it is my belief that teacher activism is more than compatible with professionalism—it is synonymous!

John F. Kennedy once said that our greatest adversary is our own unwillingness to do what must be done and, on another occasion, said that "things don't just happen, they are made to happen and they are made to happen by all of us."

One of the most important aspects of our professional activist responsibility is to provide the leadership to make things happen, to become involved, to get things done, to speak for all members. This means willingness to take stands, to make changes, to be different and creative, to provide answers to problems, to speak out—to be activists.

Our ultimate power and our responsibility will be determined by our choices. There can be no deviation from our singleness of purpose, no lack of commitment to truth. The task is great, but the alternatives are unthinkable. □

LETTERS

Corporal Punishment

Though there may be an excess of corporal punishment in the Dallas school system (as reported by Nat Hentoff in *Today's Education*, May 1973), schoolchildren in many Northern cities suffer other phenomena just as grave that don't occur in Dallas.

For example, first-grade children in Madison have had their spirits mutilated by third graders, who gleefully mug them for their lunch money without fear of any punishment, corporal or otherwise.

Another example: There is a pedestrian tunnel under a main thoroughfare in Madison, and small children use it as the only practical access to their school. For a while, parents had to stand guard within the tunnel to prevent assaults (which had resulted in at least one broken arm and countless bruised heads) by junior high students on the smaller children.

The idea that this behavior is the result of no corporal punishment is simplistic. Still, simply ignoring antisocial behavior isn't going to modify that behavior. Nor is abdication of school authority for maintaining good classroom and off-campus behavior.

Subjecting children to the hazards of maltreatment by their schoolmates is just as "damaging to children; damaging to the learning process" as corporal punishment. As Hentoff so eloquently stated: "No one who engages in behavior that demeans others can escape being demeaned himself thereby."

Oh yes, it's demeaning—at least to the victim. Just ask the high school freshman who wouldn't wear his watch to school the first day "because the big kids'll just beat me up and take it away."

The answer? I don't know. I don't propose corporal punishment as the answer. Maybe there *is* no answer. There is a problem, though, and I never saw it in Dallas, but I do see it in Wisconsin and in Ohio.

—Jack E. Blake, *father of three schoolchildren and husband of a school employee, Madison, Wisconsin.*

It's tragic that an article deploring corporal punishment in the schools should be timely in 1973. I have never known an excellent teacher who needed to use corporal punishment. I have known some inadequate ones who leaned on it. I suggest that educators be permitted to use corporal punishment only if they agree to accept such punishment themselves from their supervisors.

—Patrick Nagle, *counselor, Yakima (Washington) Public Schools.*

Nat Hentoff uses extreme cases to support his position. Has he ever thought of pupils who enjoy school more because the behavior of one classmate has been improved through the proper and discreet use of corporal punishment?

—Douglas Wilson, *principal, Brooklyn-Guernsey-Malcom Elementary School, Brooklyn, Iowa.*

Hentoff's article is biased in that it gives only the child's or parent's side of the story without ever giving the teacher's side. For every case of abuse that he can cite, I can give a dozen in which a whack on the rear end would have done a child a world of good.

—John J. Johnson, *sixth grade teacher, Somerville (New Jersey) Middle School.*

It is easy to defend abolition of rubber hoses, leather straps, and other accoutrements of the torture chamber, but this is not the heart of the situation. Consider the warmhearted, sensitive adult facing a group of students, some of whom make torment their major. It is important for the group to know in their hearts that Mr. Teacher may stroll down the aisle and exercise the parental prerogative of grabbing somebody if things get too far out of line. It is equally important to the teacher's self-confidence to know that under conditions of appropriate stress (and parameters can be set up), he may cuff or shake a student without fear of a lawsuit.

Mutual respect between students and teachers should be our policy, but if a student deserves a swat, he should get it.

—Louis A. Del Fabro, *teacher and administrator, Samoset Junior High School, Lake Ronkonkoma, New York.*

How a spanking can *mutilate* (horrors!) a child's spirit is beyond my imagination. Many of us grew up with the understanding that if we crossed the street without permission or skipped school and so on, we could expect a spanking. And many of us so "threatened" grew up safe, sane, and with a healthy, integrated personality.

—Patricia Kirk, *reading teacher, Wheat Ridge (Colorado) Senior High School.*

I have never met a teacher who was a sadist and enjoyed punishing children. Teachers—like parents—are humans and do make mistakes when disciplining students. Disciplining is the most distasteful part of being a teacher. Mr. Hentoff is off-base when he tries to separate discipline and learning. They go together.

—Helen L. Turner, *social studies teacher, Lakeview Junior High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee.*

Memorization

In regard to "Memorization Has Its Place" by Jean Mizer Todhunter in the April 1973 issue, you may be interested in Robert Frost's opinion on the subject: "People keep saying it's not good to learn things by heart, but if you don't have things by heart, what are you going to have to think about when you lie awake and can't sleep at night? Pretty things that are well said—it's nice to have them in your head."

—Suzanne Erickson, *Reedley, California.*

To Jean Mizer Todhunter's thesis that great words, great ideas, memorized, make our lives richer or our life patterns more stable, I say "Right on!" For too long we have accepted the maxim that we must not preach, and assumed that this meant eschewing everything uplifting. And so our children have been nourished on pap, lest we inculcate in them some middle-class values. No wonder so many of them have turned to drugs.

—Luella Rifner, *attendance and social worker and former English teacher, Lafayette (Indiana) School Corporation.*

Mrs. Todhunter wrote, "Critics decry a loss of values in our young people, a shoddy lack of appreciation of the worth of their own lives and their own nation." She believes memorizing passages from literature will rectify this situation.

(*Continued on page* 8)

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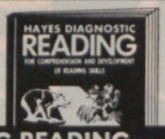

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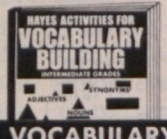

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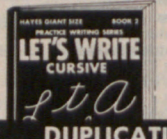

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LETTERS

(Continued)

How can students appreciate their own lives and their own values when schools systematically condition them to accept what the teacher says? The teacher says to memorize Shakespeare because it's "great literature." But then to some people, so is Cleaver's *Soul on Ice*. She says to memorize "The Gettysburg Address" because it "brings a sense of Lincoln's deep compassion for suffering. . . ." How about skipping the memorizing and leaving some time to read Claude Brown's *Manchild in the Promised Land* or the *Autobiography of Malcolm X?* There's certainly compassion for suffering in these books.

—Clare Howard, *assistant editor,* Scholastic Teacher *magazine, New York City; former history and English teacher.*

♦I do not believe Clare Howard and I basically disagree. Written thoughts powerful enough to be worth memorizing need not come only from the classics and should never result from the teacher's own set pattern of thought.

Learned passages are valuable when they meet the student's needs, mesh with his life values, begin with his level of comprehension, and move deeper into his own feelingness. Indeed, the young person should relate to the literature of his own times most of all. And he could relate yet more deeply to it if he memorized passages from it.

Superficial reading is mere acquaintance. Reading that is reinforced with the concentration and lastingness of memorization involves the reader with the writer and acquaintance becomes understanding.

—Jean Mizer Todhunter, *former teacher and guidance counselor.*

In elementary school I had to memorize poetry. The pressure of learning and then reciting these verses led me to dislike poetry intensely.

Until this past school year, I had avoided poetry. But through a poetry workshop at Lehigh University, I learned that poetry and its appreciation is a deeply personal experience. I found that if children are offered a variety of poetry, they will find something that appeals to them. They tend to remember it because it is pleasing to their ears and has personal meaning to them.

(Continued on page 10)

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LETTERS

(Continued)

As an example of this, I cite the ability of children to remember lyrics of popular songs.

—Jo Ann Dantinne, *teacher, Wolf Elementary School, Easton, Pennsylvania.*

When I was a senior in high school, my English literature teacher had us memorize everything from Chaucer to Shakespeare to Donne to Burns. I retain only a few of the beautiful phrases, but almost all of the meanings. *Those* lines were the ones I understood best of all the hundreds of passages we read. Even if you recite dully, you pick up meaning in the process.

—Marcia Niemann, *student, Midland College, Fremont, Nebraska.*

There is a difference between rationale and rationalization. What Jean Todhunter offered in her article was a rationalization, long on emotion and short on logic. The poignant story of the comfort Mrs. Todhunter's former student obtained from a memorized phrase of literature while in Vietnam is heartwarming. However, in spite of its emotional appeal, it hardly justifies inflicting the anguish of extensive memorization on millions of American students.

Understandably, a teacher who enjoys her subject as much as Mrs. Todhunter obviously does would project her interest on her students. It is even more understandable that she would search for a means to justify, to those of us who are less enamored of her subject, her requirement that students memorize literature.

As teachers, we need a rationale for deciding what our students should and should not memorize. We need to ask ourselves several important questions. First, what is it that our students need to understand and feel and believe in? Once we have some tentative answers, we must ask ourselves what must be memorized, analyzed, synthesized, and evaluated so that our students can apply their understandings for the benefit of mankind. Memorization plays an important but limited part in this thinking-valuing-acting process.

Memorizing "The Gettysburg Address" does not contribute significantly to any part of this goal.

In spite of the limitations of memorization, there is a defensible argument

in its favor. A person should memorize information that he uses frequently. This criterion has two important implications for educators—first, that different students need to memorize different things, second, that memorization should be meaningful because it grows out of an individual's need to know.

—Buckley R. Barnes, *assistant professor, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Georgia State University, Atlanta.*

I hope Mrs. Todhunter's article will revive an interest in memorizing. Every bit of beauty that can be put in our computer (brain) will someday be called back to give a fleeting moment of pleasure, peace, or fortitude.

—Vieno Keskimaki, *K-3 Title I teacher, Withee (Wisconsin) Elementary School.*

Freehold Eleven Send Thanks

♦*At the NEA Convention in Portland, Oregon, last summer, delegates paid tribute to New Jersey teachers who had been jailed for striking for better schools. Subsequently, many delegates sent letters of encouragement to the jailed teachers. The following open letter is in response to this action:*

An action of the NEA Convention resulted in welcomed cards and notes of encouragement mailed to the "Freehold 11" from Portland.

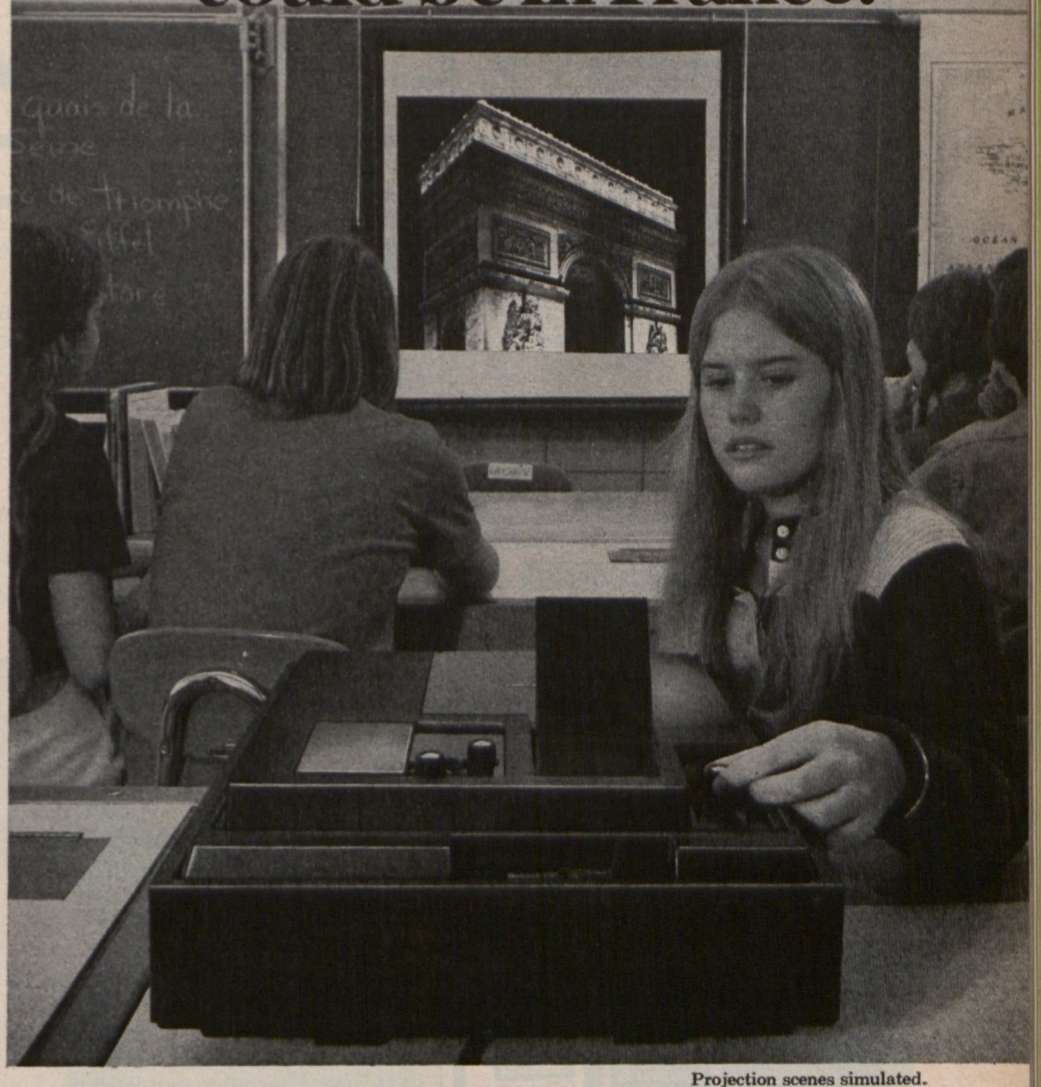
The cards and letters were both timely and encouraging, and we have attempted to send acknowledgements to each delegate who wrote. If any delegates were missed, please accept this open letter as an expression of thanks.

Striking (excuse the expression) in the letters received were the many accounts of instances where school boards, acting unfairly and irresponsibly, forced teacher strikes. The harsh treatment we suffered seemed mild when compared to the treatment of others: Florida teachers fired upon with shotguns; Hawaii, $190,000 fine; San Francisco, 227 teachers fired for striking (the court did order the schools to take the 227 back into employment).

It occurred to us that even though we read a large sampling of the public press, we were quite uninformed about

(*Continued on page* 12)

your French class could be in France.



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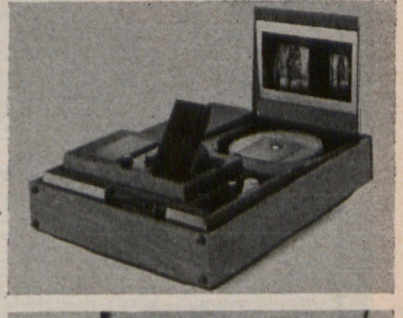

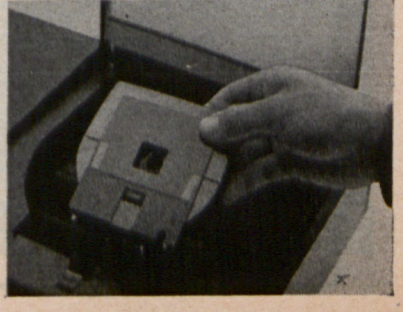

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LETTERS

(Continued)

the efforts of teachers to secure their basic rights. Even if an item regarding a teacher strike was reported by public media, little mention of issues was made. It is in this area that much work must be done by all members of the profession.

—Freehold Eleven, *Monmouth County Education Association, Long Branch, New Jersey.* (The 11 jailed teachers served sentences of 30, 60, or 90 days—a total of 450 days—before the last was released in early August. None was fired.)

Medicare

"New Federal Retirement Legislation" (*Today's Education,* March 1973) says that "to qualify for Part A, a participant must also enroll in Part B (physicians' services and prescription drugs). . . ." Actually, drugs are covered under Part B only when they cannot be self-administered and are furnished in the doctor's office and included in his bill. Prescription drugs in the generally understood definition of the term—namely, drugs prescribed by a physician and supplied by a pharmacy for the patient's at-home use —are presently not covered under the Medicare program.

—Bill S. Byrd, *Director, Professional Relations Staff, Central Operations, Bureau of Health Insurance, Social Security Administration, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.*

Student Evaluations

I was extremely interested in the article on student evaluation by Joan Jacobson in the May issue. It sounds like a terrific idea! I hope my high school will adopt such a plan because I believe it would benefit both teachers and students.

—Barry Heins, *vice-president of the student council, Coronado High School, El Paso, Texas.*

Students are not sufficiently mature to make a valid teacher evaluation. If a poll had been taken in my school days, my classmates and I would have rated very high those teachers who had personality plus and were interesting and entertaining. The teachers who made us work and whom we considered strict, we did not care for. But as the years passed, we realized that we learned a great deal that was worthwhile from those strict, hardworking, tough, dedicated teachers.

—George Dendrinos, *teacher, School Street School, Boonton, New Jersey.*

National UNICEF Day

For more than 25 years, the United Nations Children's Fund has performed a uniquely humanitarian and nonpartisan role in bringing health to the minds and bodies of millions of children throughout the world.

Nearly half of UNICEF's financial support from the American public is raised each year by the 3½ million youngsters who ring doorbells to "Trick or Treat for UNICEF" on Halloween, which has been designated National UNICEF Day.

We write to remind teachers of this annual opportunity to help the Fund provide more nourishment for the hungry, better medical care for the sick, and more meaningful education for the unschooled among the needy children of Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Middle East.

—Johanna Grant, *Communications and Development, U.S. Committee for UNICEF, United Nations Children's Fund.*

♦ **The editors, in planning an article for a future issue of *Today's Education,* are eager to learn of inner-city and suburban junior and senior high schools that are experiencing a minimum of violence, tension, and fear. If you teach in such a school and can give us clues to the secret of its success, please write to us.**

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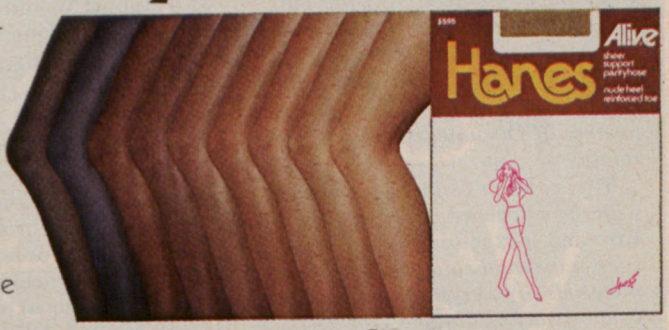

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This month's listing was prepared with the assistance of the staff of Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials, *a biennial catalog of printed materials of interest to teachers. The catalog may be obtained for $3 from Box 164, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, TN 37203.*

ALCOHOL AND DRUG ADDICTION

Drugs and You. Discusses major drugs used and abused in the United States today. 1972. 115 pp. 75¢. Pocket Books, 630 Fifth Ave., New York 10020.

Know About Drugs. Describes drugs and their effects, including addiction, and discusses programs for "curing" drug dependents. 1969. 47 pp. 40¢. American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, OH 43216.

Under the Influence. Leaflet describes an experiment testing the reactions of drinking—but not legally drunk—drivers in a simulated crisis at the wheel of an automobile. 1972. Free. Aetna Life and Casualty Co., 151 Farmington Ave., Hartford, CT 06115.

ENVIRONMENT

The Breath of Life. An overview of the air pollution problem, with proposals, such as use of electric automobiles, for alleviating it. 1970. 159 pp. 95¢. Berkley Publishing Corp., 200 Madison Ave., New York 10016.

Environmental Discovery Units. A series of environmental investigations of such topics as "Wind," "Oaks, Acorns, Climate and Squirrels," and "Plants in the Classroom." Designed to augment the curriculum at various levels, the series includes 24 titles, priced at $1 and $1.50. A free brochure describing the units is available from: National Wildlife Federation, Educational Servicing, 1412 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

GUIDANCE

Careers for Women in the Seventies. Advises women and girls to train for jobs not traditionally held by women as well as for traditional ones. Tables for selected occupations show percentage of jobs held by women in 1970 and average annual openings projected for 1970-1980. 1973. 14 pp. Issued by: Women's Bureau, Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.
Multiple copes are available at 35¢ each from Supt. Doc.

College Decision Workbook. Provides a format for the college-bound student to organize on paper information about himself and about colleges he wishes to consider—their characteristics, programs, and costs. 1972. 37 pp. $1.50. Quantity discounts available. College Decision Workbook, P.O. Box 3313, Richmond, VA 23235.

The Freshman's Friend, by S. W. Johnson. A semiserious explanation of all those terms, labels, and phrases tossed around on every college campus. Arranged alphabetically, the guide provides quick reference for the campus novice at orientation, registration, and other trying times. Includes explanations of such terms as accreditation, bursar, carrel, grading, hoods, library search, orals, practicum, professorial status, sections, seminars, and stacks. 1971. 53 pp. 75¢. Barron's Educational Series, Inc., Crossways Park Dr., Woodbury, NY 11797.

HUMAN RELATIONS

Bilingual Education, PREP Report No. 6. 1972. 21 pp. 65¢. Cat no. HE 5.89:6. S/N 1780-01013. Supt. Doc.

Good Words: Notable Books on the American Indian. Contains an annotated list of recent books, prepared by American Indian students for the American Library Association (ALA). 1973. 9 pp. Brochure is available in quantity from ALA Order Dept., 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611: 10 copies, $2.50; 25, $5; 50, $9; 100, $17. ALA Reference and Adult Services Div. (same address) will provide single copies upon receipt of 16¢ in stamps and a self-addressed mailing label.

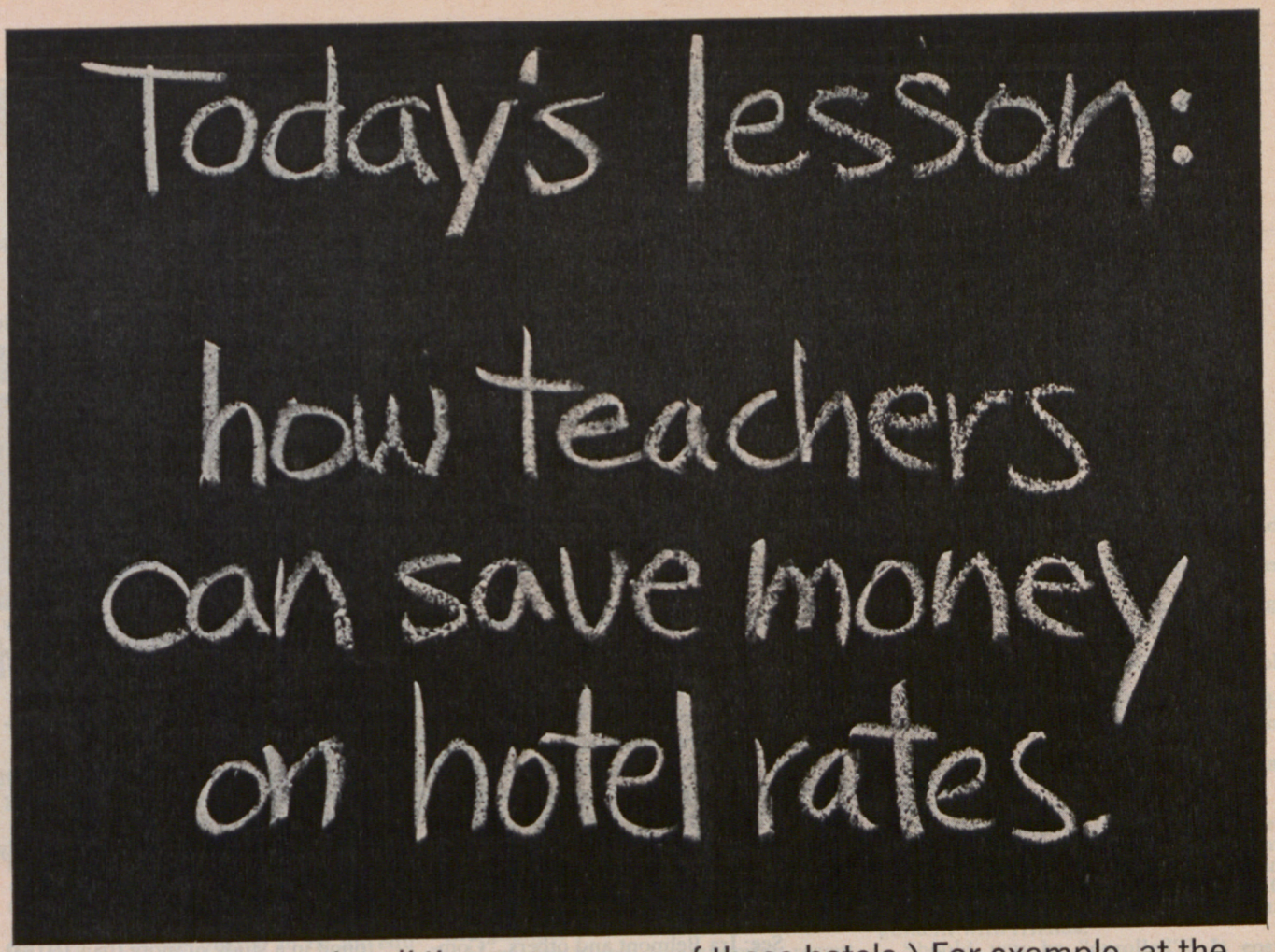
Multimedia Materials for Teaching Young Children: A Bibliography of Multicultural Resources. An annotated list of multicultural materials, primarily from nonprint media, for teaching elementary schoolchildren to appreciate and understand differences in others. Also includes materials for adults. 1972. 25 pp. Free. National Leadership Institute/Teacher Education, University of Connecticut—U-173, Storrs 06268.

We, the Americans. A series of 15 booklets published by the Bureau of the Census primarily for secondary students. Summarizes 1970 census results and presents them in illustrations, simple charts and graphs, and easily understood language. Each booklet is on a different subject: our homes, incomes, schooling, cities and suburbs, our work, the elderly, youth, young marrieds, women, Indians, Blacks, Asians, persons of Spanish heritage, immigrants. 1973. 40¢ and 45¢. Discount of 25 percent available if 100 or more copies are mailed to the same address. Send for descriptive order forms from Public Information Office, Bureau of the Census, Washington, DC 20233.

READING

Benjamin: Reading and Beyond. Chronicles the efforts of a volunteer instructor to help a 19-year-old dropout with a fourth grade reading level develop into a successful reader. 1972. 140 pp. $2.25. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., Columbus, OH 43216.

Reading Activities with the Tape Recorder. Handbook describes activities in which students at various ability levels can use a tape recorder to develop such skills as oral reading, word attack, and comprehension. 1973. 48 pp. $1.50. Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.



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RESEARCH CLUES

By ALEXANDER FRAZIER
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus.

□ **Readers will understand that findings** like those reported here have to be assessed carefully. What works in one situation may not in another. A single study seldom settles an issue or determines "the truth" once and for all. Knowledge accumulates slowly.

But new ideas deserve our consideration and often repay it. Moreover, we may sometimes be struck as much by the audacity and ambition of a researcher as by his results. If a study opens up a new field of speculation for us, that may be contribution enough.

Is it more attention that counts?

As supplements to their regular reading program, matched pairs of poor-risk first graders received either remedial teaching or perceptual training. After seven months, comparisons showed little difference in the results of the two treatments. But both groups made gains much greater than would have been anticipated for such children had they been unaided. Apparently doing something extra for slow starters can be all to the good.

See: Ira Belmont and others. "Comparison of Perceptual Training and Remedial Instruction for Poor Beginning Readers." *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 6: 230-35; April 1973.

What do we know about learning from pictures?

Less than might be expected, considering the image-rich environment into which today's children are born and the extent to which all of us are increasingly dependent upon pictures for information as well as entertainment.

Much of the past research, as we learn from the present review, was concerned with comparing pictures with the printed word, a dead end if ever there was one. The historic lack of willingness to respect the picture as a legitimate carrier of information still gets in the way of our understanding the uniqueness of the graphic medium and our dependence on it. "Many researchers have simply substituted pictures for words as stimuli in traditional verbal learning tasks," as Levie points out. Consequently, the investigations don't add up to much.

Nonetheless, we do know some things. Children and adults who are inexperienced with pictures have to learn how to "read" them. Pictures are not a universal language as we may have supposed. Density of detail complicates getting data from pictures just as it does from print. In skills teaching, films are not always superior to still pictures: It depends on the nature of the skill being taught.

Strangely enough, little has been done with the study of differences in learning style as related to print, pictures, and concrete objects. The bearing of IQ on learning from pictures has also attracted little interest.

See: W. H. Levie, editor. "Research on Learning from Pictures: A Review and Bibliography." *Viewpoint* 49: 1-94; March 1973.

How do high school drug users differ from nonusers?

They smoke more—and not marijuana only. They are fonder of strong drink. They like school less. And they're less likely to see drugs as really dangerous—except for heroin and other opiates.

These are among the differences found in a study of more than 10,000 eighth and eleventh graders in the Metropolitan School District of Nashville, Tennessee. Fifteen percent of the students professed some use of drugs, ranging from one-time use only to use every day.

Drug users feel the school drug education program is less than adequate. They also overestimate the extent to which drugs are used by their peers. They reject the idea of going to parents about drug problems. They are much less happy with their life at home than are nonusers—59 percent compared to 31 percent.

See: Marvin E. Binkley and L. M. DeRidder. "Comparing Drug Users with Nonusers." *NASSP Bulletin* 57: 77-84; April 1973.

How do adults respond to a career information "hot line"?

During its first two months in operation, a telephone career guidance service being tried out at Providence, Rhode Island, received 500 calls from adults, two-thirds of them women. Manned by five trained counselors, the project is sponsored by the National Institute of Education and directed by

(*Continued on page* 18)

Presenting The Invisible University

Once upon a time, we used to try to stuff all of our learning experiences into neat little boxes.

The spatial boxes were classrooms and the time boxes were labeled Grade School, Junior High, High School, and College.

But now we're breaking out of the boxes (perhaps because we felt we were suffocating) and finding new learning adventures all around us, all our lives.

Television documentaries, book clubs, paperbacks, magazines, 16mm films and cinema verité, correspondence courses, talking tape cassettes, museums going show business—all are part of an "invisible university" that permits any interested citizen to share in the joy of discovery with today's scientists and thinkers.

We're finding out that you don't have to have a college degree to be an educated person—and that you don't have to stop educating yourself after you get one.

This may explain the phenomenal growth of the fairly new monthly magazine Psychology Today. In just five years, it has zoomed up out of nowhere to a circulation well over 850,000 monthly copies.

Psychology Today was introduced to bridge the gap between the laboratory and the living room, the professional and the educated layman.

Each month it presents the views and findings of pioneering professional researchers and thinkers, including leaders like Carl Rogers, Bruno Bettelheim, Margaret Mead, Erich Fromm, Harvey Cox, John Lilly, B. F. Skinner, Kenneth Keniston, Herbert Marcuse.

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Traditionally, in many college subjects, you had to grind for a year or two through agonizingly dull basics before you got to "the good parts." In Psychology Today you start out with "the good parts"—the fascinating, illuminating contemporary discoveries about who we are, why we act as we do, and how we can change.

Here are a few topics under recent discussion in our section of "the invisible university"...

Does sports activity really build character?

Can a psychological test predict your success in business? In investing?

Why do fat people eat even when they're not hungry?

How might psychology have prevented the Vietnam war?

Why do many bright, capable women in business have a will to fail?

Can three people be happily married—to each other?

Does "the screaming" cure really work?

How can income tax forms be made foolproof?

Can a chimpanzee learn to read and write?

Can criminals be rehabilitated through brainwashing? (And *should* they?)

Can fingers see color?

Why do we expect beautiful people to be smarter?

Should we teach children to read the way pigeons are taught to play ping pong?

Is there really such a thing as hypnosis?

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RESEARCH CLUES
(Continued)

the Education Development Center (Newton, Massachusetts) as part of its Career Education Project.

See: "Career Education." *EDC News:* page 14; Winter 1973.

Authoritarian or democratic leadership—which gets the best results?

When accuracy is at stake, bossiness wins out, despite a lot more wrangling among group members. The subjects of this study were college students, the setup planned to provide sharp contrasts, and the experimenters are cautious of their conclusions. But maybe leadership (and teaching?) style needs to suit the task at hand.

See: Joseph A. Cammalleri and others. "Effects of Different Leadership Styles on Group Accuracy." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 57: 32-7; February 1973.

Will metropolitan redistricting solve the problem of integration?

What we have tried thus far—redrawn zone lines, paired and grouped schools, modified feeder patterns, skip zoning, site selection and construction policies, and a variety of optional methods—really leaves untouched the problem of achieving racial balance in "large city, majority-black systems surrounded by white suburbs."

The metropolitan district provides a necessary base for effective action in such situations, Foster contends. The Metro district proposed for Detroit, for example, would include 52 suburban districts and enlarge pupil population from 300,000 to 780,000.

Size may prove the big drawback, but side benefits are several: cuts in transportation costs, less competition for good teachers, community stabilization, equalization of school revenues.

See: Gordon Foster. "Desegregating Urban Schools: A Review of Techniques." *Harvard Educational Review* 43: 5-36; February 1973.

Can students be taught to use behavior modification techniques on themselves?

What is going on as part of Stanford University's Program on Teaching Effectiveness would seem to say they can. Self-observation is the base for deciding on needed change and for marking progress. And environmental and behavioral planning are the means of inducing change.

For example, weight gainers learn to stock only low-calorie snacks; overspenders, to carry less money on them. That is called "altering the environment." A smoker may reduce intake by putting a heavy-gauge rubber band on his wrist and snapping it sharply every time he succumbs and lights up a cigarette. That's an instance of "altering the consequences of behavior," a self-punishment approach.

See: "Approach Combines Skinner and Rogers for Sake of Teacher." *D & R Report* 2: 15-16; May 1973.

Can attention be taught (or bought) by reinforcement?

Reinforcement at frequent intervals might be thought likely to interfere with establishing new habits of attending to business. But the nine-year-old learning-disabled subject of this study was brought from a 60- to an 88-percent at-work score by being informed of each token earned for five minutes of concentrated attention. A flashing light at his station was the signal; the tokens were traded in for science apparatus.

When the treatment ended, the backtrack figure was 67 percent, high enough to warrant belief that the procedure can produce lasting increments.

See: Pamela Novy and others. "Modifying Attending-to-Work Behavior of a Learning Disabled Child." *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 6: 217-21; April 1973.

What impact have the large-scale social studies projects had on teacher practice?

Not a great deal—if the results of a survey of teachers in two midwestern states is representative. Materials from 11 major projects are reported in use in some classrooms, but only three projects have gained much national attention.

Of the 400 Kansas and Missouri teachers surveyed, 15 percent were using materials from the Basic Concepts in History and Social Studies; 16 percent, materials from the High School Curriculum for Able Students project; and 21 percent, materials from the Harvard Social Studies project. These were also found to be the only projects familiar to as many as a third of the teachers.

Least used materials came from the Anthropology Curriculum Study, Project Africa, and the High School Geography project.

See: John Guenther and Wayne Dumas. "Teacher Familiarity with and Use of Project Social Studies Materials in the Midwest." *Educational Leadership* 30: 641-43; April 1973.

HELP IS ON THE WAY.

Yours for the asking—helpful teaching aids on natural gas energy. Designed by teachers for use in the classroom, these materials will help you present the natural gas energy story while at the same time demonstrating the practical application of science principles.

Today, concern about energy and the environment is very much on the student's mind. The study of a natural resource that furnishes nearly 1/3 of the energy used in the United States can help the student better understand his role in the environment. Just check the teaching materials you would like for your classes.

AGA American Gas Association

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N00480. The Story of Natural Gas Energy—Text-and-picture history, uses, and future of natural gas. Grades 6-12.

N00500. Science Principles and Gas Appliances with Experiments—A 32-page booklet on scientific principles employed in home heater, water heater, range, clothes dryer, incinerator, and air conditioner. With 12 classroom experiments, materials for overhead projection and sample report sheet. Grades 7-9.

N00080. Experiments With Gas—Teacher's manual of 28 classroom experiments using fuel gas. Includes complete directions, ideas for student participation, etc. For General Science, Grades 7-9.

N00100. How Your Gas Meter Works—Teaching guide with illustrations, diagrams, wall chart, and student work sheets. For General and Social Science classes, Grades 7-9.

N00610. Natural Gas Energy and the Environment—an informative newsletter for students on the origin and use of fossil fuels, the carbon cycle, air pollution, our country's current fuel supplies and sources. Grades 7-12.

N00090. Advanced Experiments With Gas—22 classroom experiments performed with fuel gas. For Sr. High School and Jr. College levels.

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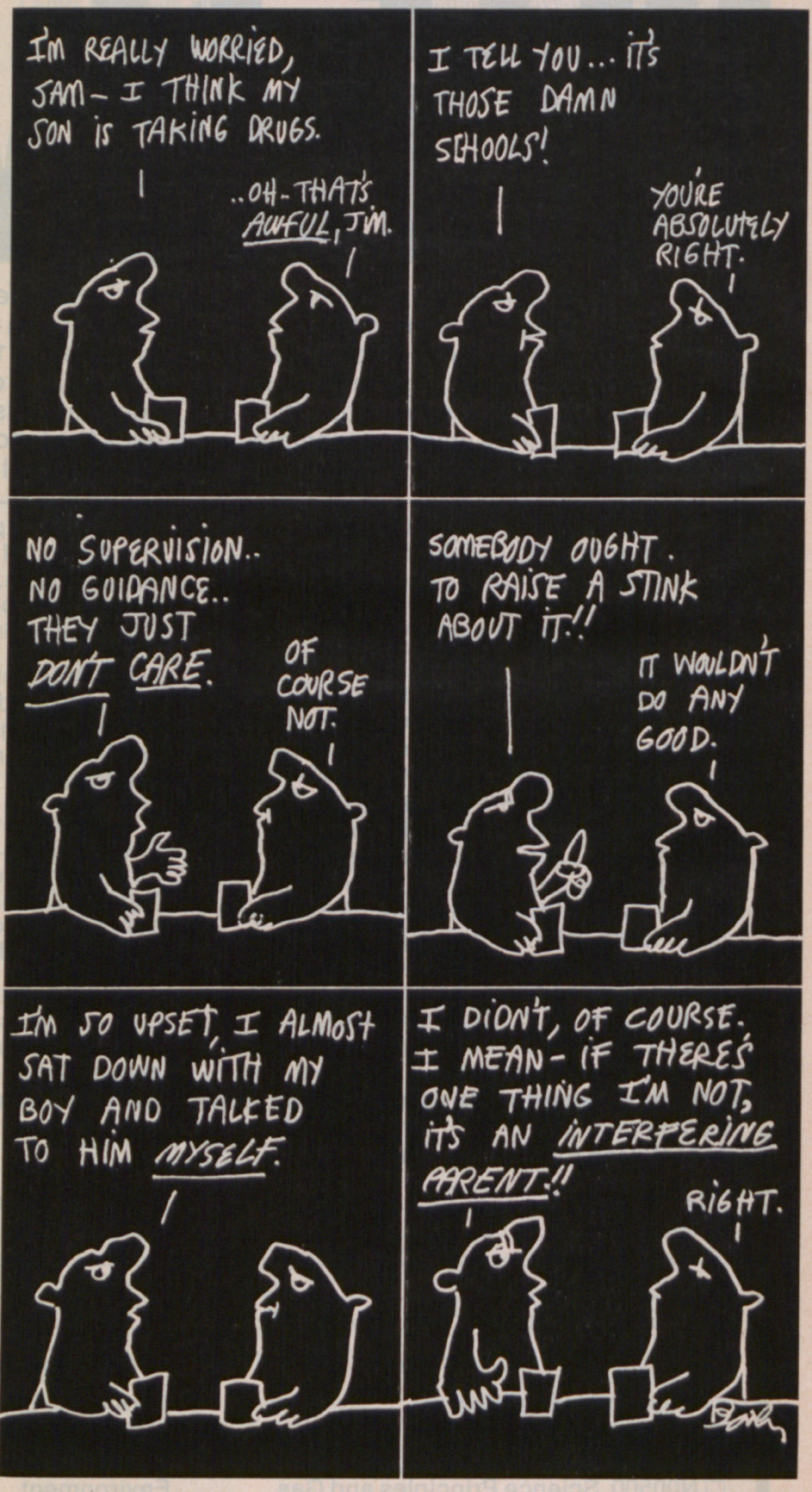
CARTOON ESSAY

By ELSA BAILEY


I'M REALLY WORRIED, SAM—I THINK MY SON IS TAKING DRUGS.
..OH—THAT'S AWFUL, JIM.
I TELL YOU... IT'S THOSE DAMN SCHOOLS!
YOU'RE ABSOLUTELY RIGHT.
NO SUPERVISION.. NO GUIDANCE.. THEY JUST DON'T CARE.
OF COURSE NOT.
SOMEBODY OUGHT TO RAISE A STINK ABOUT IT!!
IT WOULDN'T DO ANY GOOD.
I'M SO UPSET, I ALMOST SAT DOWN WITH MY BOY AND TALKED TO HIM MYSELF.
I DIDN'T, OF COURSE. I MEAN—IF THERE'S ONE THING I'M NOT, IT'S AN INTERFERING PARENT!!
RIGHT.

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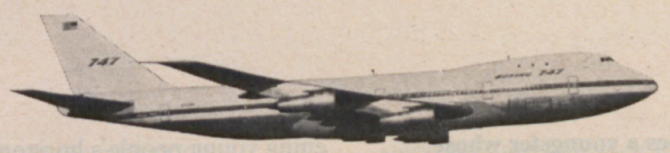

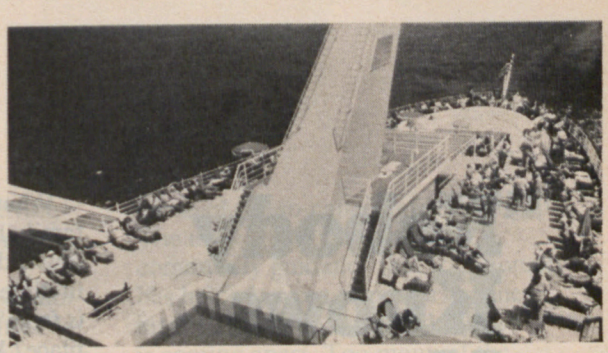

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"Nobody Knows My Name"

—the effect of rootlessness on young people

By VANCE PACKARD
Author and Lecturer.

□ **What does a youngster whose** family has moved into five different towns during the eight years of his lifetime say when asked where he is from? What happens to his sense of place? What training is he getting in uprootedness as a way of life?

Eugene Jennings of Michigan State University, who has conferred with many business managers in their homes, overheard the son of one mobile manager ask his dad when they were going to move again. Knowing that they had lived in the community for almost two years, the son was starting to wonder when they would be packing.

And a young man who had been raised in the military establishment confessed to me that since boyhood he had had difficulty developing close friendships. He was certain the reason was that while he was growing up his close friends were from military families and were usually rotated out every two years. The pain of repeatedly losing friends caused him unwittingly, he suspected, to start shunning close friendships.

Mobility as a major cause of social fragmentation in America obviously has some sort of impact on the millions of youngsters who find themselves being moved to a new locality each year. The majority of these young people are the children of highly mobile, affluent parents; military parents; and migrant workers.

Yet the impact of mobility on children is not readily predictable. It varies with the family. Many children are resilient and seemingly learn to cope readily. They are less inhibited than their parents about making acquaintances in new neighborhoods. A year can seem like a long time to a four-year-old. And moves often do contribute to broadening young people's horizons and training them to respond to challenges.

A great many children reach the age of 10 without ever finishing a single grade in the same school where they began it. In Montvale, New Jersey, I found that only two out of 110 high school seniors questioned were now living in the house where they were born. Nearly half had spent some of their high school years elsewhere. An official of Florida Tech University told of one student who had attended 17 different schools. And a wife of a manager in Darien, Connecticut, who had moved 16 times in her 22 years of marriage, told me: "Our youngest son, now 15, has been subjected to three different school systems in the past 12 months. This is our price paid for progress."

But what is that price for youngsters in general?

In the several studies I've encountered that compared the school grades or IQ test scores of mobile and nonmobile students, only minor or subtle differences seem apparent, and even these are not entirely consistent from study to study.[1] Mobile parents who

[1]See "The Effect of Pupil Mobility upon Academic Achievement," *National Elementary Principal,* April 1966; C. H. Gilliland, "The Relationship to Achievement of Mobility in the Elementary School," University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1959; E. D. Tetreau and J. V. Fuller, "Some Factors Associated with the School Achievement of Children in Migrant Families," *Elementary School Journal,* February 1942; Carla Fitch and Josephine Hoffer, "Geographical Mobility and Academic Achievement of a Group of Junior High Students," *Journal of Home Economics,* May 1964; and Frank Farmer, "The Effect of School Change on the Achievement of Military Dependent Children," paper presented to the California Educational Research Association, Palo Alto, California, March 3-4, 1961.

A great many children reach the age of 10 without ever finishing a single grade in the same school where they began it.

worry about the commonly held belief that they handicap their children academically by moving apparently can ease up on their worrying, at least if they are not supermobile, if they don't keep moving during school years, and if their children are reasonably good students.

R. Keith Thomas, principal of the Loy School for children of the highly mobile military personnel at Great Falls, Montana, mentioned one interesting thing he had noticed. He said the children of above-average ability tend to adjust to a new school situation rather well, whereas adjustment is often a hardship on the student who is average or below average in ability. Schools vary in what they teach at different grade levels, and for the struggling student the frustration of academic problems caused by moving can lead to emotional problems.

The age of the children at the time of a major move unquestionably is a major determinant of how well they will adjust to the move socially and emotionally. The three- and four-year-olds and those from 13 to 18 appear to be most vulnerable to difficulties. Louise Bates Ames of the famed Gesell Institute of Child Development in New Haven, Connecticut, advised me:

"At the very earliest ages (infancy), children probably don't mind too much. Then you come to the rigid preschool years (21 months to four years for some) when everything has to be *just the same* (even within a house or room). Moving may be quite traumatic in that it disturbs this rigidity. Five- to 10-year-olds might, hopefully, accept moving without too much trauma, but then come the teens, when youngsters' lives are *shattered* by leaving their hometowns and their hometown friends."

The problem for teen-agers is not only that of leaving their old friends but of finding friends in the new town. Loneliness may become a problem because teen-agers take longer to make friends than grammar school youngsters. By junior and senior high school, cliques have become a big thing. A school official in Darien, Connecticut, bluntly explained the incoming teen-agers' problem there:

"Often new students are not accepted, are isolated, and look miserable. If newcomers are in the seventh, eighth, or ninth grades, the adjustment is more difficult than if they were in lower or upper grades. The ninth graders' adjustment is the most difficult. When young people are in the seventh to the ninth grades, mothers are concerned that their children get in the right set and push them into dating. But if the newcomers are from affluent families, they will fit in."

A mother who called the ninth- and tenth-grade years the ones that are "murderous" for newcomers said that such youngsters from high-mobile families tended, under the pressure for popularity, to get on "the fast track" and to get "too far out in their behavior."

At a forum I was conducting with members of the Darien Newcomers Club, one mother raised an extremely interesting point. She asked: "How do parents who are new in a town help their children evaluate their friends? How can parents counsel wisely since they don't know what kind of parents these friends of their children have?"

This woman, I felt, was unwittingly putting her finger on one substantial cause of the so-called generation gap. The network of parental and community guidance that traditionally has helped orient teen-agers as they hit the testing phase for adulthood is coming apart. Too many of the people who would normally be involved in the process are strangers. Teen-agers have no frame of reference on what constitutes appropriate behavior and thus are forced to make their own decisions. For guidance, they turn to their peer group, which at the early teen level instinctively tends to take an adversary position regarding adults and adult values.

And as parents continue moving, teen-agers must continually become acceptable to new peer groups. If the moving continues while the teen-ager is away at college or boarding school, he comes "home" on vacations and in the summer to a totally friendless environment. After a few days, his inclination is to take off in search of his scattered friends.

One mother I know who moved several times in the United States and abroad while her children were of college age made this further observation: "The worst thing about moving as the children get older and into college is that you find you have dropped them all over the landscape—from California to Rome."

After college, the graduate usually doesn't seek employment in the "hometown" where his parents are currently living. He looks elsewhere. Thus, social fragmentation is reaching into the family not only because of divorce but because of generalized mobility.

As these cases indicate, the mobility of Americans intensifies the so-called generation gap. If, as projected, the mobility accelerates, the gap will become even wider and social frag-

The three- and four-year-olds and the 13- to 18-year-olds appear to be most vulnerable to difficulties.

mentation will probably increase.

Probably the most highly mobile Americans are the hundreds of thousands of migratory people who help to harvest the nation's fruits and vegetables. These migrants follow three main streams: the East Coast stream that has its main staging area in the spring around Belle Glade, Florida; the West Coast stream that operates principally in California, with its main staging area at El Centro in the Imperial Valley; and the main stream, whose staging ground is south Texas, particularly the town of McAllen in Hidalgo County.

McAllen's school system has established a special school with an extended-day program to help migrants' children go north without falling hopelessly behind. Its school year, 35 days shorter than the regular school year, runs from the end of October to early May. Still, many children arrive late and leave early. Many families start moving north around April 15.

Migratory workers in Texas have spent the median number of about six years in school. They mostly speak a special Mex-Tex language, which mixes Spanish, Indian, and English. On the road, most let the crew boss, who is often a relative, speak for them. He also negotiates terms of employment. The average crew of workers is about 20, plus children; but some caravans have more than 100 persons.

An important point to remember in considering migratory workers: Although there are truly uprooted migratory workers in America, such as the Anglos who are simply drifters in central California, the Mexican Americans from south Texas do have significant roots.

During the time they are on the road, they are usually with kinfolk or people they have known for years, so that, like a nomadic tribe, they remain a cohesive group. Thus, the adults have relatively little basis for being plagued by a sense of uprootedness or loneliness. However, their children are hard hit. They are torn from their schools and are moved from one bewildering town to another, where they frequently spend long stretches alone as their parents work; and local youngsters often treat them as aliens.

The Mexican American migrants attach enormous importance to returning annually to their homes in south Texas. One of the nation's leading authorities on migratory workers, James Nix of the U.S. Department of Labor, relates:

"I was surprised at the number of these migratory workers who are homeowners back in Texas or wherever their home base is. One of our studies showed that 48 percent owned their own home or were in the process of buying one. This means that they are higher in home ownership than the general U.S. population."

Quite probably, this purchase of a home reflects their extraordinary need for a sense of place.

The possible negative impact of frequent moving on the mental health of children of military parents; migrant workers; or highly mobile, affluent mothers and fathers remains to be tested and pinpointed by anything resembling an impressive body of studies. One systematic study in the 1940's found evidence that childhood disorders increase with frequent changes of residence. A former director of children's services at the Menninger Clinic, in speaking of the emotional disorders some children undergo *temporarily* in the course of a move, added that feelings of loss, helplessness, and isolation "become more than temporary if the child is already anxious about his relationship with his parents." But most of the evidence that there is some negative impact comes from convictions developed by academic experts and by cases in point.

Sociologist Philip Slater has pondered extensively the impact of the fact that the whole socioeconomic structure of the United States is moving toward producing a society of "temporary systems." These would take the form of task forces organized around problems to be solved by groups of relative strangers. The concept would apply primarily to handling work problems. But even marriage, he suggests, conceivably may become a temporary system tied to a particular locality and task.

Convinced that a child moving from place to place suffers social impairment, he advised me: "I still find it difficult to imagine how the raising of children can be reconciled with temporary systems. I think, in fact, that it cannot be. Of course, children grow up one way or another, and I do not in any way mean to imply that under such an arrangement everyone would end up in a mental hospital. The kinds of personality development we could expect under such a system are simply incompatible with our society as it now exists. Something altogether new might emerge from this. I really cannot imagine what it would be."

Another academician who, a few years ago, expressed concern for mobile children was social philosopher Helen Merrell Lynd at Sarah Lawrence College. She noted: "It is hard to overrate the importance of con-

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For millions of American children, the neighborhood is nothing but row upon row of buildings inhabited by strangers.

tinuity for children. Some children I know began to stutter after their families had made several moves that for the parents had been 'a good vacation' or 'a step up in the world.' "

Children of fathers who are commuter-travelers may experience some of the same negative influences as the children of highly mobile parents. The *Wall Street Journal* reported that an investigation which involved interviewing commuters to New York concluded that they felt their commuting had hurt their relationships with their families. How might it hurt? Consider these three comments by three people in Darien, our prototype commuter town.

• A junior high school official: "If the father works nearby, say in the Stamford-Greenwich area, the youngsters can understand, and if the commuting hours are moderate, the father commands a good deal more authority with his children. Many problems at school stem from the fact that parents are not home. The male image that ought to be there is lacking. Often both parents are working. I frequently have to contact parents about disciplinary problems and can't get either of them because both are working or the wife is running around all day to teas and bridge parties."

• A businessman who has been in affluent Darien more than 15 years: "Because the commuter is in New York or traveling most of the time or works late and stays in the city overnight, a gap develops between him and his children. This is bound to have an effect on them. It frequently takes the form of vandalism, drugs, and thievery." (In the early seventies, Darien ranked among the highest of all the towns in Fairfield County in drug arrests of young people.)

• Helen Miller, a mother, volunteer school worker, and long-term resident of Darien: "I've watched one whole generation grow up here. The doctors and lawyers and the ones who stay here all day that I have seen have yet to face a serious social problem with their children. Almost all of the serious problems arise in situations where the family is split or the father commutes or travels a lot. Darien has no grandfathers to fill in while the fathers are away. The mother can be a drunk or run around a lot, yet this doesn't show up as sharply in the kids as the difference that develops when the father isn't there. It's unbelievable."

Mrs. Miller's observation is supported by studies made by family life specialists.[2] Urie Bronfenbrenner,

[2]See Vance Packard, *The Sexual Wilderness* (New York: David McKay Company, 1968), Chapter 23.

SCHOOL PROJECTS FOR MIGRANT CHILDREN

□ During the spring quarter last school year, a fifth grade class at Nyssa (Oregon) Elementary School visited Boise, Idaho. The agenda included the state museum, the state capitol, and the airport.

On the way to Boise, two boys—the children of migrant workers—bubbled with excitement as we neared the city. Neither had ever been in a town except Nyssa, although they had traveled many miles each year in the West. Their only exposure to the outside world was in a beet, onion, or potato field.

Their biggest desire was to see an escalator. Although the boys learned much that day, their talk centered around the thrill they had in seeing the big town and in riding the escalator.

Nyssa is in the eastern part of Oregon along the Snake River. The area is almost entirely agricultural, with beets, onions, and potatoes the main crops. After the Amalgamated Sugar Company located in Nyssa, sugar beets became a key crop.

Cultivation of beets used to require a great amount of hand labor. Consequently, many migrant or seasonal workers populated the area from spring to fall and then moved to another place during the winter. In the last two years, however, the Company has not recruited migrant workers because better seeds, electronic machinery, and better chemicals and ways of cultivating have reduced the need for hand labor.

Nevertheless, a number of families still follow the seasonal work for other crops, traveling from Texas to this area and back. As a result, their children enter and leave three or four schools a year, never having enough time to make real friends in a new area. Although this life-style still prevails, some families are staying in one area year-round. The reason for this change may be the parents' desire to see their children have the opportunity for a good education.

The schools in Nyssa are providing many and varied experiences for migrant youngsters in order to give them the best education possible. The goal of the schools is to provide academic experiences at appropriate levels for all children.

The following are some ways the

Cornell psychologist, found that "absence of the father was more critical than absence of the mother" in personality formation.

Family mobility is only one of several factors which undermine community life in modern society and have a negative impact on youngsters. The result of the population explosion and implosion into great metropolitan areas that has occurred in the past 25 years is another. Philip Hauser, noted demographer at the University of Chicago, says: ". . . disorder of contemporary life may be better understood and dealt with as frictions in the transition still under way from the little community to the mass society." In talking of the confusion and "chaos" of contemporary life, he mentioned delinquency, crime, alcoholism, drug addiction, mental disorder, and the youthful revolt which in its extreme form has manifested itself in the hippie's resolving his problems by dropping out.

The impact on children of the environment of a mass society that is increasingly anonymous has been specifically singled out for critical reports or comments by several behavioral experts in childhood development.

Herbert Wright and associates at the University of Kansas compared the everyday lives of youngsters growing up in a small town with the lives of youngsters living in a modern metropolitan area. They found that children in the small town got to know *well* more adults in various walks of life and were more likely to be *active participants* in the adult settings where they found themselves.[3] (Here again we see a causative factor in the "generation gap.")

Urie Bronfenbrenner is another who is concerned about the impact of the constricted world of "shifting suburbia" on children. He points out:

"Whereas the world in which the child lived before [the small town] consisted of a diversity of people in a diversity of settings, now, for millions of American children, the neighborhood is nothing but row upon row of buildings inhabited by strangers. One house or apartment is much like another, and so are the people. They all have about . . . the same way of life."[4]

While only a restructuring of urban life to recapture something resembling the socializing environment of small towns would seem to offer much hope of relieving the present constricted environment provided for children in most large urban settings, schools

[3] See Urie Bronfenbrenner, "The Split-Level American Family," *Saturday Review*, October 7, 1967.

[4] *Ibid.*

schools have tried to meet the needs of youngsters who move constantly, who have few friends and enriching experiences, and who have more need than most children to feel successful.

- Teachers who have migrant children in class try to make them feel welcome in many ways, such as having the rest of the class discuss with the newcomer names and places near the school and providing the migrant child with a big brother or big sister to acquaint him with the school.
- The system has hired bilingual aides who are particularly helpful in working with migrant children, large numbers of whom are primarily Spanish-speaking. These aides implement and accomplish specific objectives prescribed by the supervising teacher.

In addition, the system has hired a bilingual home consultant who explains the school program to parents of migrant children. She can also help the family with medical problems they are facing, by helping set up appointments for physical or eye examinations.

The hiring of the home consultant and aides has resulted in a big change in parent attendance at school functions, especially parent-teacher conferences. During the last round of parent conferences, 80 percent of the migrant parents attended, compared to 60 to 65 percent attending the preceding conferences.

- The Resource Center at Nyssa Elementary School provides diagnostic and enrichment materials for all pupils. These materials can be particularly helpful to students who are having difficulties in the language area, especially migrant children.
- Our local Intermediate Education District office recently offered an extension course entitled Teaching English as a Second Language. The primary goal of this class was to give classroom teachers insight into teaching English to a youngster who has learned a language other than English as his first language. Teachers who have taken this course recommend it highly.

—Gary Jasper *and* **Jerry Sloan**, *sixth grade teachers, Nyssa, Oregon. Mr. Jasper is also president of the Nyssa Education Association.*

and families can at least ease the negative impact of mobility on children. For example, teachers can see that an incoming child gets a little welcoming ceremony, can invite the child to stay after school for a friendly get-acquainted and orientation chat, and can appoint a classmate to serve as a buddy to the newcomer in getting him involved with his new classmates. Preferably the buddy would be someone living near the newcomer so that the new child would also have someone to walk to and from school with.

Several family researchers have offered the opinion that any negative effect of mobility on children can be small if relationships within the family are solid. A number of wives I consulted echoed this belief. A recently arrived mother in Darien observed: "One of the most important things is this: A good family situation —and especially one in which the father is firm but companionable— wipes out an awful lot of the headaches that can come from being transplanted."

At the least, it would seem, there is a very real *potential* negative impact in all the uprootedness of modern life upon the children. Another Great Falls educator put this in somber terms by asserting: "Society faces a hazard because of all this moving, where children don't have roots and don't have grandmothers they can see fairly regularly." □

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THE MIGRANT CHILD: AN EDUCATIONAL DILEMMA

□ Rather obviously, migrant children spend relatively little time in classrooms and learn very little while there. During the two years I worked most closely and methodically with migrant families who belong to the so-called Eastern stream, I had occasion, in the case of 10 families, to check on the children's school attendance and found that each child put in, on the average, about eight days of school during the month.

Often, the children had colds, stomachaches, asthma, skin infections, and anemia, and so had to stay home "to rest." Often, the children lacked clothes and so had to await their turn to put on the shoes and socks and pants or dresses that were, in fact, shared by perhaps three or four children.

Often, the parents had no real confidence in the value of education, at least the kind they knew their children had to get, in view of the nature of migrant life and in view, for that matter, of the demands put upon the migrant farmer who lives that kind of life. Nor did the children usually feel that what they had already learned outside the schools ought to be forsaken in favor of the values and standards and habits encouraged within schools.

Migrancy makes regular school attendance next to impossible even if a particular set of parents desires it for their children. The most ambitious and articulate migrant farmer I have ever met describes precisely the dilemma he must face as a parent, a worker, an American citizen:

"You don't realize how hard it is, trying to make sure your kids get a little learning, just a little. I don't expect my oldest boy—he's named after me— to go on and finish school. The little schooling he'll get, it's no good, because he's been in and out of so many schools, and he gets confused. We go from one state to the next, and sometimes the school will remember Peter, and they'll try to pick right up with him where he left off and give him special teaching, so he doesn't lose all his time just finding out what's going on and where the other kids are. But in a lot of schools, they don't seem even to want you or your kids. They'll give you and them those sour looks when you come in, and they'll act toward you as if you're dirty. You know what I mean? As if, well, as if you're just no good, and that's that.

"My boy, he sees it, just like me, even if he's only nine. I try to tell him not to pay attention, but he knows and he tries to be as quiet and good as he can, but I can see him getting upset, only hiding it, and I don't know what to say. So I just try to make the best of it and tell him that no matter what, even if it's a little bit here and a little bit there, he's got to learn how to read and how to write and how to know what's happening, not just to himself but to everyone in the world.

"But the boy is right clever, and he says, 'Daddy, you're not talking the truth at all, no sir. It don't make any difference if you get your schooling, because the people who don't want you in school and don't pay you any attention there and only smile when you tell them you're sorry but you won't be there come next week because you've got to move on with your family, well, those people will be everywhere, no matter where you want to go and what you want to do. So there's no getting away from them. Why even try if you know you're not going to win much?' "

—**Robert Coles,** *child psychiatrist, Harvard University Health Services. Dr. Coles wrote at much greater length on this subject in* Uprooted Children: The Early Life of Migrant Farmworkers. © 1970 *by the University of Pittsburgh Press and reprinted with its permission.*

Sitting Pretty

By STEVE BRODY
English Teacher, Eastchester (New York) Senior High School.

□ **The assignment of seats, which occurs** early in the school year, is apt to evoke considerable intrigue. Some students are as difficult to separate as the Siamese twins. One year a love-stricken pair was assigned to my English class. On the opening day, they had spent the greater part of my introductory lecture gazing yearningly into each other's eyes, apparently oblivious to rudimentary influences like myself.

Since I seat my students alphabetically, I ordered everyone to the back of the room and started through the alphabet. The stricken young lady announced herself as a Callahan and was awarded the fourth seat in the first row. Her inamorato told me he was a Clark, earning him the seat behind, in spite of an inner voice that kept warning me.

A week or so later, when I began compiling my official class roster, the raw truth came to light. The girl was indeed Nancy Callahan, but the young man turned out to be Clark Weber, a swain five rows removed-to-be. I summoned him to my desk. "Last week you told me your name was Clark," I began.

"It *is* Clark," he replied.

"I now discover that your name is really Weber."

"Quite right, sir. It's that, too."

"Why didn't you give me your last name?"

"You failed to specify, sir."

It was obvious that I had a smooth cookie on my hands. "Pack your books," I ordered, "and move to the last row."

Nancy was at my desk like a cat. "You can't do that. Oh, please, sir, you mustn't, you mustn't."

I folded my arms across my breast and assumed an imperious pose. "And why mustn't I?"

"We're indispensable to each other. It would be terribly cruel to separate us."

"I'm not banishing Clark to Siberia. I'm merely switching him to the last row. You'll see him often."

"You mustn't do it," she insisted. She lowered her head, and a teardrop stained my thesaurus. "We have such little time left."

"I don't quite understand."

"He'll be off to college in the fall." The tears were falling in a cascade.

I was beginning to choke up. "I'm sorry, Nancy," I said. "I didn't realize you were so serious about Clark. By the way, where does he plan to attend college?"

"City College of New York." She began to sob hysterically.

I had expected Beirut, or at the very least, Heidelberg. "City College? That's only 40 minutes away."

"An eternity."

Nothing is as powerful as a young lady's tears. I was about to relent and make an exception when my conscience iced over. I repeated my order to Clark. "Last row, young man. The seat by the pencil sharpener."

The move had disastrous consequences, which I was to regret for the rest of the year. Nancy, fortified with fragile pencils and a heavy writing style, beat a steady path to the sharpener. One day she stood grinding away so long that I watched her eraser vanish into the machine. Obviously, either Clark or the pencil sharpener would have to be relocated. After careful consideration, I decided to move the sharpener. It now rests under a portrait of Samuel Johnson, who glowers fiercely. Most of the class

has switched to ball-points.

When assigning seats, I deviate from my strict alphabet policy at times. Youngsters who bring their lunch from home, for example, require special placement. One year I had a pepper-and-egg sandwich on one side of my desk and a kielbasa on the other. The combination bore down on me just prior to the lunch period and proved so heady that teaching was out of the question. I asked the kielbasa why he didn't leave his lunch in his locker.

"It smells up my clothes," he explained.

Now, at the start of the year, I line up all sandwiches along the rear wall and sniff each carefully. I assign forward locations to the peanut butters and cream cheese and jellies, while reserving rear areas for salamis and meatballs. Not long ago, a rather innocuous cheddar cheese switched to pastrami in midterm, making my life miserable.

Because the fourth period precedes lunch, it is undoubtedly the toughest time of the day for the teacher to function. Stomachs begin to groan, and the sandwich set becomes edgy. They gaze into their bags, fondle the contents, and sniff hungrily while peeking at the clock.

I once had a burly hockey player named Cliff Brandeis in my fourth period class. Cliff requested that he be seated in the back, suggesting that his size might obstruct the view of smaller students. I interpreted the gesture as a selfless one on Cliff's part and readily consented.

Day after day Cliff sat back there, his face hidden by *Adventures in English Literature*. He was the diffident sort, else I might have suspected him of using the book to shield clandestine communications. Weeks would pass, and I'd hardly ever see Cliff's face. When I'd pass him in the corridor, I'd even fail to recognize him.

One day I heard a rustle of paper behind the anthology. Suspecting that Cliff was munching his way through the Romantic Era, I tossed out a quickie. "In what poem do we find the concept that anticipation is greater than realization . . . Cliff Brandeis?"

I could see the top of Cliff's head bobbing violently over the volume, but no reply. I urged.

"Obook geeshim mum," emerged from behind the anthology. I ordered Cliff to lower the book. His cheeks were bulging, and a half-eaten hamburger sandwich with a raw onion lay on his desk. I waited patiently while Cliff wolfed the mouthful down and cleared his throat. "Ode to a Grecian Urn," he said.

After class I summoned Cliff to my desk and inquired why he had violated my strict rule against eating in the room. His explanation was downright feeble, but it was accompanied by such a strong exhalation of onion that I concluded the interview as quickly as possible, my brain befuddled by the noxious fumes. □

"You can do it, Ted. Just think of it as a touchdown, the point after, and a field goal."

Matching Teacher, Student, and Method

If a teacher has a natural teaching style, can it be conjoined both with a pupil's natural learning style and with a particular teaching method so as to achieve minimum incompatibility among the three?

By LOUIS J. RUBIN
Professor, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Dr. Rubin's latest book is Facts & Feelings in the Classroom, *Walker and Company, 1973.*

□ **It is safe to conjecture that on** countless occasions a student has been shifted from one teacher's classroom to another's because a "personality conflict" arose. Researchers have long been interested in these mismatches, which cause child and teacher alike untold aggravation.

In the present way of things, students and teachers are assigned to one another arbitrarily; with luck—or with sufficient mutual tolerance—both usually survive the encounter. But mere survival, after all, may not be enough, for when a child and his teacher do not like one another, the quality of learning obviously must diminish. Thus, even when learner and tutor manage to repress the discomfort which one may trigger in the other, life in the classroom still remains far less gratifying than it could be.

Personality conflicts are probably inevitable. To begin with, all of us have our special likes and dislikes. There was a time when we assumed that—properly trained—any teacher could work effectively with any child. Greater maturity, wisdom, and sophistication, we reckoned, should enable the truly expert teacher to accommodate to the peculiarities and idiosyncracies of even the most demanding learner.

It is now plain, however, that people, alas, are not so made. Moreover, in recent decades, the relationship between teacher and student has become a good deal less formal and more permissive. As a result, even the protective insulation formerly provided by custom and clearly defined roles no longer exists. Today, not only does a child usually forego saying, "Yes, sir" or "No, ma'm," but he also is likely to quibble about the usefulness of an assignment or the logic of the teacher's decisions.

And, beyond likes and dislikes, humans tend to have very different preferences with regard to the ways in which they go about their affairs. We speak, for example, of "night people" and "day people." Some individuals are heavily dependent on routine, some have a great dislike for the unexpected, and some prefer to go about chores randomly rather than systematically. Obviously, differences of this sort often complicate the relationship between student and teacher. When, by the luck of the draw, the behavioral styles of the student and teacher blend, the student can be himself and thrive happily in the classroom. When, however, their behavioral styles contrast sharply, one must either adjust to the other, enduring the consequent irritation, or the two must separate.

To compound matters further, all of us are subject to our special distortions, our private stereotypes, and our individual irrationalities. Whereas one teacher believes that children should be seen and not heard, another is disturbed by excessive docility. Some teachers are particularly annoyed by those personality characteristics in their students that they hate in themselves, while others are extraordinarily understanding and sympathetic with such students. Some teachers may be exceptionally sensitive to certain actions in children: cheating on a test, perhaps, or chewing gum or talking back.

For all of these reasons, then, the forced partnership between teacher

How can we predict which child will do best with which teacher? ▶

Matching Teacher, Student, and Method

and student sometimes takes a heavy toll in emotional agony.

An obvious question therefore arises: Is there some way in which teachers and children can be matched for compatibility? Can we find a formula for a successful school marriage between a teacher and a child, so that the relationship is mutually rewarding and relatively tension free?

The evidence from social science research, though not yet conclusive, almost certainly leaves room for modest optimism. The sheer mass of humanity in the school would alone almost guarantee that, given suitable matching devices, children could be placed with teachers of similar emotional makeup, thereby substantially reducing personality conflicts.

The critical problem, of course, lies in the discovery of the matching devices themselves. How, in short, can we predict which child will do best with which teacher?

Several years back, when I was director of the Center for Coordinated Education on the Santa Barbara campus of the University of California, we carried out a rather interesting experiment. Borrowing some ideas from Lee Cronbach and Abraham Maslow, we were impelled by the notion that "natural style" ought to be a significant factor in professional training—rather than fit the person to the job it might be more efficient to fit the job to the person.

We conjectured that we might be able to match a teacher's style with an instructional method that was particularly fitting and, going a step beyond, connect both of these with a student who also had a high affinity for the same teaching method. We knew, for example, that teachers can devise alternative instructional programs with which to accomplish the same objective, that most children learn more easily with one kind of method than with another, and that teachers usually prefer a particular approach in working with children. We assumed, in short, that theoretically it should be possible to join all three elements in such fashion that maximum congruence and compatibility would occur.

We assumed that if we could match teacher, student, and method, positive gains would result. Children would learn more effectively and find the process of learning more enjoyable; student-teacher personality conflicts would be reduced; and teachers would find their work more satisfying. Furthermore, we hoped that such matching would greatly reduce the range of problems with which teacher in-service education must cope.

Represented graphically, the conception we used would resemble the illustration below.

Teacher	*Method*	*Student*
Mr. Jones	A	Lisa
Ms. Smith	B	Beth
Ms. Douglas	C	Jenna
Mr. Carter	D	David

Assume, for example, that we have four different reading programs at our disposal. The illustration suggests that Mr. Jones has a strong stylistic preference for Method C, and a student, Beth, also seems to learn most effectively with Method C. Hence, by allowing Mr. Jones to use Method C and by assigning Beth to his class, the harmony among teacher, method, and student should improve.

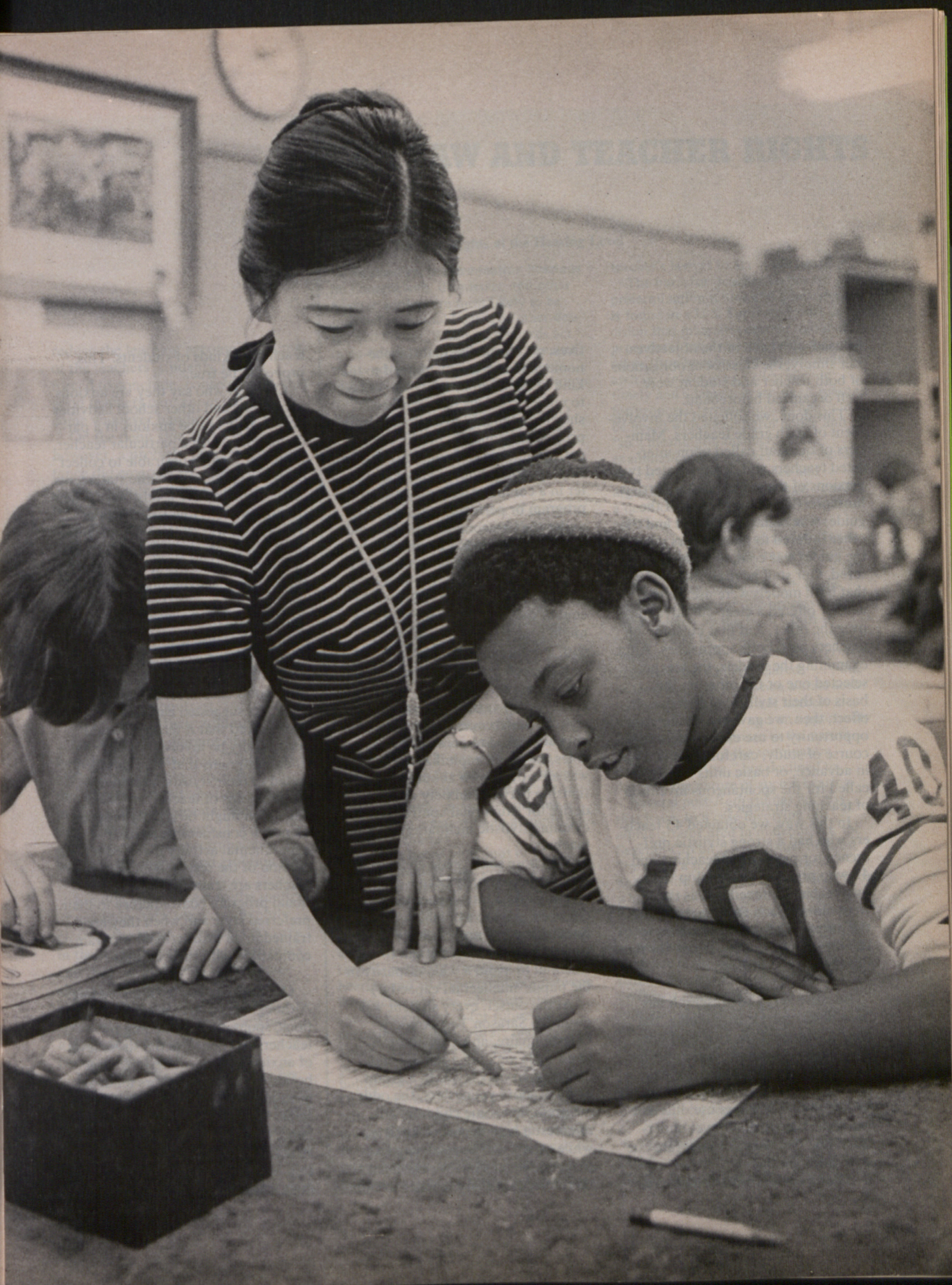
Couched in the form of a question, the purpose of the experiment might be stated as follows: If a teacher has a natural teaching style, can it be conjoined both with a pupil's natural learning style and with a particular teaching method so as to achieve minimum incompatibility among the three?

One other facet of the experiment is also worth noting. We launched the investigation when the open classroom movement was ascending in popularity. We were convinced that should an open classroom have only a minimal degree of structure it would be unsuitable for some teachers and for some children. We were not opposed to the movement as such; indeed, we believed that under proper conditions, open classrooms had much to offer. We thought it likely, however, that some teachers, because of their particular personality bent, might not work effectively in the absence of routine and, similarly, some children, too, might be upset by a lack of classroom structure.

In retrospect, the study was a bit less than ideal, partly because of some technical limitations but chiefly because of the difficulty in finding distinctively different instructional curriculums aimed at precisely the same teaching objectives. All in all, however, we obtained results which we regarded as reasonably significant.

Our procedure was comparatively simple. We began by creating six short social studies units dealing with six social problems: segregation, race, hate and violence, poverty, cultural pluralism, and the future.

Next, we employed a group of 10 outstanding, experienced, and highly regarded teachers to create teaching guides for the six units. Each guide specified learning materials to be used, the reasoning skills to be learned, and the social values to be encouraged. In addition, it provided a precise teaching strategy as well as a set of learner activities that could



be used with each of the objectives. Put simply, the classroom obligations of both teacher and student were well organized beforehand.

This done, we solicited the involvement of sixth grade teachers. Members of our staff called upon interested teachers and demonstrated two versions of the experimental curriculum: one (involving the use of the guide) was highly structured and the other (offered to the teachers without the guide) was comparatively unstructured. Our staff advised the teachers that both models were useful, that neither offered a clear-cut advantage over the other, and that outstanding teachers used both approaches. After examining the models, the teachers selected one or the other on the basis of their stylistic preference. In effect, then, we gave the teachers an opportunity to use either a detailed course of study, carefully worked out in advance, or basic units which called for the spontaneous invention of teaching strategies.

In this way, we obtained 45 teachers who had a strong stylistic preference for preplanned teaching and 45 who preferred to develop their own teaching procedures as they went along. Each group agreed, for the purposes of the experiment, to use the selected methodology for the duration of the project.

Because very little research has been done on style in teaching, the need to compare the effects of one style against those of another posed some difficulty. We know, for example, that children learn in different ways and that teachers use different methods, but we do not yet understand fine details which separate one style from another.

After a review of various alternatives, we concluded that the phenomenon of anxiety lent itself to the kind of exploratory study we wished to make. Previous research had shown that highly structured learning programs frequently produce better performance in high-anxious children. Low-anxious children either do better in a comparatively unstructured program or perform no differently under the two conditions. We could find no research that compared the teaching styles of high-anxious and low-anxious teachers, but we conjectured that a similar relationship could exist: High-anxious teachers might prefer and accomplish more with a preorganized program.

It seemed feasible, therefore, to use anxiety level as a way of getting at individual variation in style. Since stylistic preferences in teaching probably are linked to personality variables, we could capitalize upon what was already known about the relationship between anxiety and the desire for situational control and examine stylistic inclinations among teachers.

We chose sixth grade children in California primarily because they had recently taken intelligence tests and their scores were available. (Since intelligence and anxiety have a slightly negative correlation, it was essential to avoid a wide disparity in the pupils' intellectual capacity.)

At the outset, every student was given the Sarason Test Anxiety Questionnaire, an easily administered scale yielding a reliable indication of anxiety level. In a group of 30 or more youngsters, the odds are great that some children will manifest a high degree of anxiety, while others will be relatively free from undue tension. We assumed, therefore, that every teacher would teach both kinds of students. This proved to be true.

Children who say they are anxious about tests and other school activities may or may not be anxious in a particular class with a particular teacher. Hence, it seemed desirable to collect from the children periodic statements about their anxiety levels. An 11-item questionnaire (How I Feel About This Class) was created for this purpose. All teachers gave various forms of it to their students at intervals throughout the experiment. The evidence thus generated enabled us to judge whether the structured curriculum, because it was certain and systematic, reduced anxiety.

Another major aspect of the experiment concerned teacher staff development. As suggested earlier, we conjectured that if teachers could successfully be involved in instructional programs that were uniquely suited to their stylistic preferences, the problems of teacher in-service education might be greatly reduced. Hence, a considerable portion of the experimental activity involved a comparison of the results obtained when teachers are trained in an instructional program contradictory to their preferred style and when they are trained in an instructional program compatible with their natural style.

Our findings yielded a mixed bag. Although there were notable exceptions, spontaneous planning by teachers did not raise the stress level of anxiety-prone youngsters, largely because sensitive teachers tend, almost intuitively, to take compensating steps. We did determine, on the other hand, that the absence of reasonable structure imposes an emotional hardship on some teachers. But, surprisingly, these tensions do not seem to

reduce the learning accomplishments of the teachers' students. One is forced to conclude, consequently, that good teachers care enough to overcome whatever handicaps they meet.

On the debit side of the ledger, however, a problem of some importance did emerge. We found that the classroom interests of children and their teachers conflict sharply. Children are interested less in knowledge than in emotional success: They want to be popular, liked by the teacher, regarded as good students, and adept at classroom activities. They learn—in many instances—not because they value the intellectual gain but because they seek the rewards which come from such gain. They want, in short, to be psychological winners.

Teachers, in contrast, are most often valued by their administrators according to the amount of information their students learn. Thus, they are of necessity more interested in the learner's cognitive success than in his emotional success. Seemingly, then, there is a profound need to strike a better classroom balance between the mental and emotional aspects of schooling.

Finally, with respect to the matter of teaching style, we were, happily, close to the target. Teachers do vary in the ways they go about their tasks, and they do find some tactics considerably more comfortable and efficient than others. While their styles are not immutable, they have a deep-seated preference for curriculums that fit.

Every teacher, in a sense, has his own particular cup of tea. Since children too seem to prefer one blend to another, we would be well-advised to search for arrangements that place both teacher and learner at the right table. □

THE LAW AND TEACHER RIGHTS

Ensuring Teacher Rights at the Hearing Level

□ **In practice, pretermination hearings** on nonrenewals, dismissals, and other adverse actions are most likely to be held before school boards or other designated bodies. When such boards act in an unfair or partial manner, teacher rights advocates, including UniServ representatives, lawyers, and association leaders, are afforded an excellent opportunity at these hearings to build a strong record on behalf of a teacher. Proof of a climate at the hearing inimical to a teacher's interest, if presented later in court, could save a job lost at the hearing level.

Most successful defenses of unfairly treated teachers occur when the teacher or teacher representative begins to build a strong teacher rights case as soon as the teacher becomes aware of possible adverse action. First, teachers should not agree to resign before consulting their association representative or lawyer. Second, the teacher or representative should request written reasons for such action and a hearing on any charges. In order to prepare an adequate challenge to charges at the hearing, the teacher should be apprised of all charges and be ready to refute them. If a teacher knows another reason for the board's action, he should so advise the representative. Third, the latter should accompany a teacher who meets with an administrator to discuss charges.

Possible board violations of a teacher's minimal due process may be apparent at the hearing. The representative must object strenuously if the board is unfair. For example, the representative should object to charges newly announced at the hearing. A written record, including transcript of the hearing and all correspondence between the teacher and the administration, should be preserved for future court procedures to demonstrate matters such as the fact that the board failed to provide a fair hearing and that an unjust determination was inevitable. Objections should be made if the board fails to follow state statutory or board procedures or constitutional procedures regarding notice, kinds of charges to be given, hearing deadlines, failure to make a decision, or refusal to permit a teacher's lawyer to act at the hearing.

The basis for teacher claims to pretermination notice and a hearing is found in a U.S. Supreme Court decision that mandates certain minimal procedural requirements prior to cutting off welfare benefits. Safeguards delineated in *Goldberg v. Kelley* include: timely and adequate warning of reasons for proposed termination, a chance to be heard with meaningful notice and "in a meaningful manner," cross-examination of witnesses, presentation of oral and written evidence and arguments, right to retain legal counsel, a decision based "solely on the legal rules and evidence adduced at the hearing," a statement of reasons for the final decision, and "an impartial decision maker."

Procedures consistent with Fourteenth Amendment due process have been ordered by the High Court in certain cases involving teacher nonrenewals. In the 1972 *Roth/Sindermann* decisions, the Court declared, ". . . due process requires that when a state seeks to terminate [a protected] interest . . ., it must afford notice and an opportunity for hearing appropriate to the nature of the case *before* the termination becomes effective," but declined to describe the nature of such a hearing.

Several post-*Roth* rulings address that issue. In a case involving an administrator fired in midcontract, the Seventh Circuit declared that he must "be given a notice of the charges against him, notice of the evidence upon which the charges will be based, a hearing before a tribunal possessing apparent impartiality, and a chance to present witnesses and confront adverse evidence at the hearing." The Fifth Circuit has said that a nontenured professor must be granted a pretermination hearing on his nonrenewal, allowing active participation of a lawyer. And a federal court in Tennessee stressed that "meaningful notice" and a chance to be heard at a meaningful time and manner must precede dismissal of a tenured teacher.

♦ *The DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA programs for Human and Civil Rights, is preparing this series.*

A Curricular Approach to Community Service...

that allows students to tackle social problems and deal with human needs.

By ALEC DICKSON
Founder, Voluntary Service Overseas, and Director, Community Service Volunteers, London, England.

□ **Americans may call it a school-**based volunteer program. To us, it is community service. It may be more fashionable on your side of the ocean to speak of "experiential learning," just as the more academically inclined amongst us still refer to "social education." Let us assume we have the same thing in mind—enabling young people to respond to human needs as an integral part of their schooling. The nitty-gritty of the problem is how to go about it. How do we confront a class with 30 meaningful tasks within their capacity, on a wet Wednesday in Wolverhampton or Wimbledon, Wichita or Washington, DC? Perhaps some practical examples from the British scene may suggest ways and means.

A school in Kent advertises for and obtains some unwanted tandems, those old-fashioned bicycles for two. What have tandems got to do with human needs? It depends on who occupies the rear seat. Seated on the rear seats in this instance are kids from a nearby institute for the blind. They never expected to be able to feel the breeze on their face as they speed downhill on a bike. Now suddenly this *is* their experience, and for the sighted students steering in front there is the challenge of describing the passing scenery in terms intelligible to kids who have never seen anything in their lives. A shared adventure.

Moral: It is fun for the sighted students, who enjoy cycling anyhow. Whilst despair and drudgery, too, may dominate many situations of human need, as an initial induction into social problems, it may be preferable to demonstrate that community service can be satisfying and even exciting. Students don't necessarily have to reach for a hair shirt to help others—a Windbreaker will do.

Does the phys ed period have to take place in the gym? After getting the necessary permission, one imaginative teacher has simply transferred a session to a nearby hospital ward. The sight of young people cavorting —with handsprings, cartwheels, and somersaults—down the clearway between the beds has astonished the staff, galvanized the patients, and delighted the students who enjoy a captive audience.

Moral: It could equally well have been members of an art class, doing their painting or drawing in a home for old people, where, as a waggish colleague puts it, there is always still life. Not every teenager feels at ease engaging in a deep one-to-one relationship with a stranger 60 or 70 years older than himself. You don't necessarily have to lay on something special when it comes to community service. Simply transferring a normal period in the syllabus to an unusual locality can bring pleasure.

At Chelsea College of Technology, pharmacy students are being involved in local campaigns to discourage the use of drugs amongst teenagers. As students of pharmacy, they understand about drugs and are

◀ *Technical/vocational training students built this vehicle for a handicapped girl who cannot use her legs.*

How do we confront a class with 30 meaningful tasks within their capacity, on a wet Wednesday in Wolverhampton or Wimbledon, Wichita or Washington, DC?

therefore in a uniquely favorable position to influence high school students. Students of mechanical engineering at the University of London have devised a wheelchair by means of which a patient can go up and down stairs unaided.

Moral: The curricular approach described here has validity at all academic levels.

An industrial worker in Norfolk was recently reported to be in danger of losing his job because he suffered from a rare and incurable blood deficiency which left his fingers so cold that by midday he could not use them. When this news reached a vocational training school, a group of students in an electricians' course pooled their ideas and made him some battery-operated, transistorized gloves. Today the worker is still happily employed.

Moral: Applying the very skills they are acquiring in class, students can make minor technological breakthroughs and solve human problems—without ever leaving the school premises. By using available facilities and plant, every educational institution could, without impairing academic work, develop an additional role as a resource center for help to the local community. Students would undergo, not just a learning experience, but a social apprenticeship as well.

In all our cities and counties, social workers go to great lengths to find suitable foster parents for children who are in need or at risk. One thoughtful and daring social worker appealed to the 12-year-olds in a local school. Who should know better than they whether their Dad and Mum were the kind of parents that any child would be happy to have; who should be more aware of a bed likely to become vacant because an older sibling was leaving home? And what factor would weigh more heavily with the parents in deciding whether or not to accept a foster child than the attitude of their own natural offspring? So some of the 12-year-olds were stirred to nudge their parents into considering such a step.

Moral: If young people, in hundreds and thousands, are to make their contribution to the community, then imagination and boldness must be shown not only by teachers but equally by social workers, who hold the power to say yes or no to student involvement in their fields of responsibility.

When some 26,000 Asians, expelled from Uganda, arrived in Britain last fall, teachers and students in relatively remote rural schools—those close to World War II Air Force installations which overnight became refugee centers—were presented with a major challenge: to befriend the Asian families, tutor them in English, invite them to their homes, and organize recreational activities for them in the camps. Suddenly the Third World had arrived in their midst and was no longer a subject for classroom discussion or charitable fund raising but the living presence of bewildered kids and parents from another continent.

Moral: Crisis situations not only disturb academic routines (thank goodness) but they can present teachers and students with challenging opportunities to learn from real life. They can also bring teachers and students closer together, for in times of crisis the young frequently react with adult responsibility and the middle-aged respond with youthful vigor.

There are various techniques for finding suitable projects. The Newspaper Game is one. Distribute copies of your local—repeat, local—newspaper and within 20 minutes it should be possible for students to discover opportunities for them to do something constructive about a problem.

"Drowned Child Found in Flooded Sandpit." Could your students fill in or fence off the pit? Or could they run a campaign to insure that kids in the area can swim or know about water safety? "Old Peoples' Luncheons Threatened by Lack of Helpers." Couldn't your students step into the gap? To feel that they are responding to current, topical problems turns on young people, who are quick to see through a project that has been "manufactured" to keep them busy. And

Ralph Tyler Discusses Behavioral Objectives

Interviewed by
JUNE GIANT SHANE
and
HAROLD G. SHANE

most local newspapers will be happy to publish a follow-up story, describing practical action initiated by a school as a result of a previous report.

"Exercise Empathy" involves a whole class. After making a preliminary telephone call and collecting 15 or more wheelchairs from a local hospital, they then return to school, half of the group acting as wheelchair patients, the remainder, as escorts. Each is assigned a special task—to use a public lavatory, to fetch a book from the library, to make a call from a telephone booth, to travel by subway or bus, to visit a cinema—with responsibility delegated primarily to the wheelchair "patient" rather than to the escort.

They return brimming over, or almost inarticulate, with indignation at the difficulties they have experienced. The library is inaccessible because of the steps leading up to the entrance. It is impossible to reach the dial of a public telephone. The descent into a subterranean toilet is nearly suicidal. The cinema manager blandly apologizes because fire safety regulations forbid any blocking of the gangways, aisles, or exits.

If that were all, Exercise Empathy would be an educational experience, an exercise in awareness of the man-made frustrations the disabled have to endure over and above their natural handicap. But it would not be service. So we ask, "What are you going to do about it?"

At some point one voice will say, "But we don't see all that many wheelchair cases in the streets, so they can't really be much of a problem." This can lead straight to a discussion about whether those in wheelchairs may avoid being on the streets because of the embarrassment of not being able to find toilet facilities to accommodate a wheelchair.

Here is an initial base for attack. Couldn't suitable provision be made for the disabled in at least one public toilet in every borough or precinct? Which section of the Town Hall is responsible? Who is the chairman of the particular committee? Let's get his home address, for if we send our letter there, no local official can keep it from reaching his desk. We'll write on school notepaper, describe our investigation, ask whether he will come and speak to our school or receive a small delegation of us at his office, and then play it by ear.

One by one, solutions to the other obstacles are considered. A student measures the height and depth of the library steps. Others then construct a ramp in the school workshop, a collapsible ramp that the library can telescope into a small space for easy storage.

Admission to the cinema? Almost certainly there will be a trade journal read by cinema owners. Let's discover the journal's name and address and write a letter to the editor, arguing that cinema owners are not likely to go bankrupt if they remove two seats in the back row, where, for the price of one, a wheelchair can be accommodated.

This second part of the Exercise is no less important than the first. The bureaucracy at the Town Hall may not excite much admiration these days amongst students; nevertheless, it represents the machinery of democracy. How to make it work is also part of social education.

It is valuable for local officials to discover that young people have a positive contribution to make. It is no less important for young people to learn that adult authorities can be persuaded to listen to high school students.

These examples may suggest that community service is a separate subject in its own right. If so, the danger, in the British context, is that it becomes scheduled merely for the least intellectually inclined (those we call the early-leavers, and you call the dropouts) whilst the abler, college-bound students are exempted on account of academic pressures. On the other hand, if participation is strictly voluntary, there is the danger that only a very few perceptive, socially conscious sixthformers (twelfth graders to you) will engage in community service in their leisure time. Under these circumstances, helping becomes the hobby of a tiny minority group.

Is there a way out of this dilemma? The curricular approach, whereby virtually any existing subject in the conventional school syllabus can be related to human needs, provides one effective answer.

Physical education in any school throughout the country could mean that 20 minutes of one session in the gym were given over to devising games for the handicapped. It would not entail altering the timetable that day or asking an enthusiastic phys ed teacher to surrender the period. Nor would

Distribute copies of your local—repeat, local—newspaper and within 20 minutes it should be possible for students to discover opportunities for them to do something constructive about a problem.

exercises undertaken blindfolded or with some other simulated disability be any less challenging physically or recreationally. It would still be essentially physical education, but with a social purpose and a compassionate motive. And the outcome could well be that the lives of handicapped children throughout the whole country might be enriched.

At Eton, the classics master, aware that a group of senior boys are participating in a social action program dealing with disturbed adolescents, has analyzed Greek and Roman attitudes toward suicide, contrasting the philosophies that support the sanctity of human life. So, suddenly, the boys perceive the relevance of the great arguments of Socrates and Marcus Aurelius to the troubled members of their own peer group.

At Brierly Street School in Crewe, situated in the poorest area of a city famed only as a grimy railroad junction and as the place where Rolls-Royce manufactures its automobiles, the boys are as far removed from the social background, academic ability, and career prospects of Eton students as can be imagined. Indeed, recently, half the members of one class of 15-year-olds were known to the local probation officer. This was the class that the handicrafts teacher took to the hospital in Crewe and confronted with nine *spina bifida* children.

The boys learned that neither surgery nor medication could do much to rectify the children's congenital spinal defects, one immediate consequence of which was their immobility. No child could move unaided, and a nurse had to lift each one for every human function. Could the boys help?

Back at school, in their handicraft session, they wrestled with the technicalities of this problem, trying out this material, testing out that design. Eventually, in the last week of term, led by their school principal, they returned to the hospital ward and handed over nine low carts, boomerang-shaped in front to fit the children's splayed legs, and mounted on casters, so that each child, when seated in one, could propel himself in any direction with his fingertips.

At the presentation ceremony, the hospital staff were astounded; the children, euphoric; the mothers, in tears of joy; and the 15-year-olds themselves, strangely silent. Why had this experience made such an impact on them, their own principal asked later. "Because it's the first bloody thing we've made in this school that we didn't have to take home afterwards" was one reply. "Because nobody said this was good for us. They said it was serious, dead serious" was another.

The advantages of this curricular approach are many. One sole, harassed teacher need not be saddled with the task of finding projects for a host of students—a whole cross section of the staff can share the burden. Furthermore, teachers are more likely to be interested if they see the relevance of their particular subject to community needs.

In far too many British schools, visiting the elderly is the form of community service suggested for the 13-year-old, for the 15-year-old, and even for the 17-year-old. This approach fails to present the student with increasingly challenging tasks commensurate with his own development. By contrast, the curricular approach allows him to tackle social problems and deal with human needs that fit his level of maturity.

This has been called "the humane application of knowledge." It avoids the do-gooder image, from which today's young people recoil—since doing good is not seen as something separate and isolated but as a reasonable and compassionate dimension of whatever job one is dealing with.

To respond to human needs, to transform study into action; this is what many students long to do. Let's not leave it to chance. Let's show them how. □

Ralph Tyler Discusses Behavioral Objectives

Interviewed by
JUNE GRANT SHANE
and
HAROLD G. SHANE

□ **Today some educators focus on a** humanistic-ethic model for schools while others favor a model which states all goals in explicit behavioral terms. To bring the issues into focus for the readers of *Today's Education,* we interviewed Ralph W. Tyler, a pioneer in the study of behavioral objectives. Dr. Tyler is a distinguished senior educational statesman and director emeritus of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences at Palo Alto.

In subsequent issues of *Today's Education,* we will interview other outstanding educators. We will be interested in reader reactions to our interview series.

Q. Is our impression correct that while you were involved in the Eight-Year Study* you practically "invented" performance objectives by stressing the need for schools to define their educational targets operationally?

A. I was involved even before that study began in 1933. When I first went to The Ohio State University in 1929, I was asked to work with various departments in improving instruction. Even then, some faculty recognized that a college education was more than simply absorbing facts. They wanted measures of effectiveness that went beyond mere memorization.

I soon realized that "learning" is a process by which people acquire new patterns of behavior—*behavior* meaning all kinds of human reactions like thinking and feeling as well as overt reactions. Thus, in talking with the various science departments, we included ways of thinking as human behavior and behavior patterns. We then were able to talk about students' understanding of principles and about their being able to apply them. This illustrates what I mean by behavior.

Although we decided that we must define our objectives in terms of behavior if we were to evaluate students, we did not use the term *performance objectives. Performance* at that time was a term used in testing to refer to a test where one did manipulative things like work with blocks to show one's ability to visualize concrete objects.

Q. In general, Dr. Tyler, you have reviewed the experiences and the circumstances that led you to conclude that the concept of expressing sought educational outcomes in terms of behavior was desirable. But if you had tried to give a definition of behavioral objectives at the time you first created them, how would you have stated it?

A. I would have said something like this: As teachers try to state what they are attempting to do, they should formulate this in terms of what the student is supposed to learn, and state this in terms of the kinds of behavior which they hope the student will acquire as a result of instruction. These become behavioral objectives.

Q. Would you change that definition in any way today?

A. No, I think not. But please keep in mind two things that many people now overlook when they talk about behavioral objectives:

One: I am using the term *behavior*

*Ed. note: The Eight-Year Study (1933-41) was designed to find out, first, whether it was necessary for high school students to meet traditional college entrance requirements in order to insure their success in college; and, second, what secondary schools would do with their curriculums once their students no longer had to meet the customary requirements.

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in the broadest psychological sense. It includes any reaction a human being is capable of making. It includes attitudes toward subjects or things. It encompasses being able to solve problems and to acquire intellectual skills like reading or physical skills like running.

Two: We must recognize that human beings are capable of generalizing behavior whereas it is generally necessary to be highly specific when training an animal. A dog, for example, has got to jump so high; he's got to do so and so. But the human being can learn how to go about problem solving—not just how to deal with a specific task that you have trained him to do as you might train a dog.

I think many current uses of the term, *behavioral objectives,* imply procedures that are too specific. I believe that the individual human being is able to solve many of his own problems and so I think that more of our educational objectives should be general in nature—like learning how to go about attacking problems, finding out where the difficulties are, getting information, analyzing the data, and drawing inferences from data.

Hence, in my view, many behavioral objectives should be set at a considerably higher or more general level than the extremely specific things I find in many current efforts to write them.

Q. Would you please make some distinctions between behavioral objectives and performance objectives? Also, how do you interpret criterion-referenced performance?

A. One has to remember that, unlike the sciences, education does not have a highly standardized terminology for technical terms. So the dictionary is no help when we try to explain what is meant by behavioral objectives. Also, usage changes quite rapidly.

But let me try to make a distinction. What I mean by behavioral objectives is a statement of what teachers are trying to help students learn from their instruction—the ways of thinking, feeling, or acting that they want students to develop.

Performance objectives tend to pertain only to matters of overt behavior, to what students do that one can see. If this is all the school attempts, it seriously limits school learning. Humans can also learn ways of thinking; they can learn ways of responding emotionally to literature. They can learn a lot of things that transcend overt performance objectives.

Q. What about criterion-referenced performance? Is it related to performance objectives?

A. I think the term *criterion-referenced* has assumed importance today because, in the past, testing in the United States has been norm-referenced. Two kinds of events influenced the so-called "Modern Testing Movement" in Western society.

One was the effort to identify people who were subnormal or superior in human functioning—the work of Binet which, in this country, resulted some 50 years ago in the development of the Stanford-Binet test.

The other was the development of the Army Alpha group intelligence test, which was created by psychologists during World War I to select out of several million men those who were most likely to benefit from quick instruction and who would be able to go into the many kinds of jobs the military required.

This test was so successful in identifying people who subsequently succeeded in various military roles that group intelligence tests and achievement tests as well began to be used in the schools.

The basic purpose of this testing is to take a total group and arrange them in some kind of order so that you can say here is the top 10 percent and here is the bottom 10 percent. The population is arranged on a linear scale from the best to the worst. This is called norm-referenced testing.

When this type of test is being made, various test items are tried out. If the items differentiate among the persons tested, they are retained. So a typical achievement test has about 80 percent of its items in the narrow range of difficulty where between 40 and 60 percent of people tested get the answer right.

If the purpose is to identify those who do best on the total test and those who do poorest, this is an efficient way to go about it. But if you are trying to answer the question, "What have students learned?" you run into difficulties. This is because (a) almost all items that most persons can answer correctly are dropped from the typical achievement test because they do not discriminate and (b) those items that almost no one can answer correctly are also dropped because they don't discriminate either.

Actually, instead of testing what our students have learned, we have been using test items to differentiate some students from other students.

Now, in this era of accountability when we are being asked such questions as "Are pupils learning to read?" or "Can they compute?" we need a different approach. We must set up questions or exercises that are related to a particular question—

that is, they are criterion-referenced: the criterion being whether or not pupils can read, compute, understand, etc.

In other words, the new tests that are coming out are criterion-referenced because they are judged for their validity in terms of whether they really test what the schools are trying to teach and not whether they differentiate the better students from the poorer students.

Q. How would you account for the fact that your views regarding behavioral objectives, which go back over 30 years, were not more generally accepted sooner? Indeed, many people seem to feel that behavioral objectives are new educational tools which were discovered in the early and middle 60's.

A. This phenomenon is not associated just with my work. Each generation tends to forget to look at the past (and this is especially true of those preoccupied with recent rapid changes). I think it is a natural phenomenon. In fact, the Bible talks about young people having forsaken their elders. They were not listening in those times, either.

Q. In general, what is your reaction to educational practices done in the name of behavioral objectives since the early 1960's? In other words, what is your reaction to such developments as competency-based teacher education, performance contracting, lists of performance objectives for the teaching of reading, and so on?

A. As a young man, I had the good fortune to be a research assistant to W. W. Charters when he was in charge of the influential Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. It was designed to identify the activities of teachers upon which their preparation should be based. In other words, the Commonwealth Study was performance-based.

Many current uses of the term,* behavioral objectives, *imply procedures that are too specific.

In the Study report, which was published in 1929, Charters identified the 1,001 activities which teachers must learn how to perform if they were going to be effective in the classroom. We have the same thing coming up now in 1973, and I fear we are back where we were almost 50 years ago. Apparently, we keep on *rediscovering* ideas rather than *building* on them. That applies to behavioral objectives and performance-based objectives.

Q. Were you really speaking of 1,001 activities or were you using that number metaphorically?

A. As I recall, the number turned out to be 1,017. However, Mr. Charters thought that 1,001 sounded better, so that was the figure commonly used. As statistician for the whole enterprise, it was my role to find statistical ways of classifying these activities so there would be a finite number of things to deal with. We developed a series of categories that came out, I believe, with perhaps 27 major objectives that would now be called performance-based objectives for teacher education.

Q. Would you agree or disagree with the statement that widespread use of behavioral objectives tends to substitute "specific answers" for general education, such as is defined in the Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society,* that was published after World War II?

A. The faculty discussions that culminated in the Harvard Report were actively under way during the latter part of the Eight-Year Study, which ended in 1941, and were greatly influenced by it. If you look carefully at that report, you will see that they, too, were trying to formulate general education in terms of major aspects of human behavior.

I think many people who are trying to use behavioral objectives today perceive them as very specific kinds of behavior. If they consider that's what schools are all about, they are confusing knowing *answers* with being *educated.*

Let me cite an example. Between 1939 and 1945 I worked as Director of the Cooperative Study of General Education. This involved some 22 colleges that were being aided in developing general education programs under the auspices of the American Council on Education.

One of the things these colleges were continually concerned about was establishing objectives that would help students attack larger problems. Although various students may come out with different solutions to problems, the important thing for each of them is knowing how to approach the problem, what kinds of issues are involved, what sorts of data should be collected, and how the data could be interpreted. These are the kinds of things that can be taught so that students become inquirers rather than

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possessors of pat answers.

I think we should be less concerned with specific behavior and more concerned with human capabilities. We should be less interested in whether students have acquired a bunch of little answers to little questions and more concerned with whether they conceive of human learning as a means by which they are able to work out answers to their own problems because they have acquired intellectual tools. Equally important is whether they have the attitude toward life that enables them to approach the tasks of living with initiative and creativity.

Q. What is your opinion of depositories of behavioral objectives—depositories from which one can obtain lists of such objectives?

A. Records of what people have chosen as objectives or of how they have formulated them can be useful as a guide. However, if the objectives are taken mechanically, I think this is as bad as becoming a convert to a religion without knowing what the religion stands for.

Q. Recently someone described a school system in which two teachers were released full time to spend the entire school year preparing behavioral objectives to match the content of textbooks the school was using. Is this a desirable way of developing behavioral objectives?

A. As you describe it, it sounds mechanistic. However, if the objectives were compiled to stimulate the thinking and understanding of those involved, then it could be quite helpful. Knowing what *you* think and trying to be clear about it is a good thing, whereas simply substituting someone else's wording is bad.

Q. In some of the small brochures that are available to help people write behavioral objectives, there sometimes are lists of words that are considered more "desirable" than others. For example, "to understand" or "to appreciate" are not as favored for use in preparing behavioral objectives as are "to list" or "to write." Is this differentiation in terminology important?

A. I think it unfortunate to talk about "good" words or "bad" words. If you want to develop some kind of meaning for a term or concept that involves more than just memorizing a definition, and if you mean by the word *understand* that students can not only define it in their own terms, but they can also recognize illustrations of it or can point out how it is connected with a variety of things—if this broader meaning of the term is what is meant by *understand*—then I prefer that word.

If, however, the word *understand* is used in order to be vague or because the person hasn't thought through what a student would do, and if you start testing him simply by checking memorization, then it is a "bad" word.

Q. Educators like James MacDonald and Arthur Combs have expressed concern lest behavioral objectives and criterion-based performance dehumanize education. Is this a real or fancied cause for alarm?

A. I would say that if the current interest in behavioral objectives implies only specific training, then I agree with all the criticisms of this type of activity. It ignores the notion that learning involves acquiring new behavior.

Q. What is your appraisal of efforts that personnel at the U.S. Office of Education have made in the last year or two to see that funded projects have their outcomes expressed in behavioral terms? Does this seem desirable or does this practice limit or even stifle some of the work we ought to be doing?

A. I do not have concrete cases on which to base an answer. However, if any USOE personnel think of behavioral objectives as very specific types of objectives that are not adequately representative of what the schools ought to be doing, then I think it is a bad thing.

On the other hand, USOE employees have to be concerned about people who get money for a project without a clear idea of what it is they hope to accomplish. To insist that they state their objectives in clearer terms is certainly desirable.

Q. Recent legislation in California and Ohio has led some local

districts to conclude that specific instructional goals must be stated precisely in terms of the behavior sought from young learners. Since the law, at least in California, requires that the competence of educators with permanent status be assessed at least every two years and that of personnel with probationary status every year, do you think use of behavioral objectives will become an indirect way of rating teachers?

A. I can imagine some laymen who have not really examined what goes on in schools and education thinking that there is some simple device by which they can determine whether to promote teachers, transfer them, or have them do something else. But I am certain that if they attempt to carry out such a policy, it will prove futile.

Q. Michael Scriven's name is sometimes associated with the term, *evaluation.* He has emphasized what he calls "goal-free" evaluation, where the outcomes of instructional experience are evaluated without any consideration for what the planner intended. What are your views on goal-free evaluation?

A. Let me say why I think Michael emphasized goal-free evaluation. When the Office of Education asked him to look at projects and their potential for the improvement of education in various parts of the nation, he discovered that in some cases the persons who had designed projects had rather limited vision—that their objectives were much less ambitious than they might have been.

As a result, he suggested that evaluators look at an ongoing educational activity from the point of view of their own knowledge of how learning takes place to examine what its potential might be for good or bad. In this connection I consider goal-free evaluation as being worthwhile.

My usual role, on the other hand, has not been to appraise things in general, but to work with schools in specifically improving what they are doing. Here, it is very important to begin with what the schools see themselves attempting to do *now:* to examine what goes on, to discuss it, to see if there are greater possibilities than they thought, to see if they have been vague in places or have lost impetus because they haven't brought their work into focus.

Q. Do you feel that having a nationwide agreement on certain behavioral objectives would reduce children's problems as they moved from one place to another within the United States?

A. We should think about this question at two levels: the secondary and the elementary school level. I think it is desirable that almost all of the states in the United States permit a person to demonstrate that he qualifies as a high school graduate by taking standardized tests such as those we devised under the guidance of E. F. Lindquist for returning veterans —the Tests of General Educational Development.

These examinations were based on behavioral objectives—upon students' being able to handle various kinds of concepts, being able to read carefully and critically a variety of materials, and being able to analyze and solve certain quantitative problems.

At the elementary school level, we face greater difficulty. In our National Assessment program, we find great agreement among educators and laymen about certain ends of education—for example, being able to comprehend newspapers and other kinds of reading materials, being able to handle certain quantitative problems in arithmetic, being able to understand the operations of our system of government, and so on. However, in the early years of school, there are no standard sequences for developing them.

Some schools start children reading with a look-say approach; others start with a phonic approach; still others start with a linguistic approach. As a result, if you were to test children in the second and third grade, prior to their having attained competence, some would have a broad vocabulary while others would have a limited one.

Therefore, if a child's family moves while he is at this age level, he may find he has quite a different background and may have difficulties for a while. However, as you move up in the grades, you often find more differences between two schools in the same city than there may be between schools in two different states.

Another point enters in here. America increasingly is acquiring a common culture. Its television and other mass media help to provide a national and world view of what is going on. Our citizens are beginning to become concerned with the same values; they consider the same skills important. As time goes on, mobile children will probably have fewer and fewer problems in finding very different purposes in the schools they attend.

Q. At the turn of the century, we thought of America as a kind of melting pot where the friendless

We should be less concerned with specific behavior and more concerned with human capabilities.

and homeless would, at least in some respects, be homogenized and Americanized. In the 1960's there was a growing emphasis on cultural pluralism. How can you reconcile the emphasis on a pluralistic culture with the comments you have made about a growing common culture in America?

A. Let me make two comments. First, a crucial problem in any society resides in the continued tension between individualism and socialization. The individual needs to be different from others; his uniqueness must be preserved. Yet, paradoxically, in order to live today with our great interdependence, he must be able to participate in a mass society.

Today, the various places where individualism and socialization come into conflict are seen all about us. I do not see this conflict ever disappearing. We may always have to struggle with the problem of how we can have a society which is both effective as an organization and yet provides a great deal of opportunity for individual uniqueness.

Second there is this to say about membership in groups: An ethnic group may be concerned—and rightly so—about its unique characteristics, but this still gives the individual an ethnic problem. He doesn't want to be considered too much like every other person who comes from his ethnic group.

The melting pot concept represented an effort to emphasize socialization. Now the pendulum has swung the other way, but we must continually keep both objectives in mind: the need to develop the individual, yet to be sure that his socialization is not sacrificed in the regular educational process.

Q. In the perspective of our discussion, how would you summarize your present attitude toward evaluating the curriculum in the light of predetermined and definitively stated behavioral objectives?

A. Let me go beyond our conversation. The great impetus to look at the curriculum in a different fashion developed after the First World War and came to fruition with the publication of the two-part 26th *Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education. These significant volumes were presented to members of the association who gathered at Dallas in February 1927. Here, many of the things that we are talking about today were expressed for the first time.

Much of my thinking was strongly influenced by this publication because I had worked with a number of people who had been responsible for its preparation.* They pointed out that we were talking about subjects as though they were ends in themselves. That is, you studied Latin because it presumably would improve your language; you took geometry supposedly because you would become a better thinker. Rather, these pioneers said, we should look at the questions—What is it that students can learn? How can they develop into persons who can take responsible positions in a rapidly changing society?

This made me and many other persons in the field of curriculum begin to realize that we had to look at the *outcomes* of learning rather than to look at the *labels*.

The Eight-Year Study was a final demonstration at the high school level that what had been holding the high schools back was the reluctance of the colleges of that era to accept a nontraditional pattern of subjects.

The Study showed that it wasn't the subjects that determined whether young adolescents were ready to go on to college; it was whether they had acquired certain kinds of behavior. Could they read critically and effectively? Could they understand important concepts, and could they handle quantitative ways of thinking?

In the end, the teachers' responsibility comes back to this: "What is it that students can learn?" And *learning* means not just talking about topics but determining what students can *do* with them. This kind of guided human development transcends behavioral objectives, per se.

Each generation has to learn to get beyond the labels and to understand the deeper significance of content. Let me say in closing that it is important, I think, for parents and educators alike to keep their minds continually concerned with what it is that education can be doing.

What can young people learn that is transferable to the world beyond the school so that they are truly educated for living and doing things of value in this world? Behavioral objectives are of value only insofar as carefully phrased ones serve as tools in helping instruction attain its real goals. □

*On the *Yearbook* Curriculum Committee were William C. Bagley, Franklin Bobbitt, Frederick G. Bonser, W. W. Charters, George S. Counts, Stuart A. Courtis, Ernest Horn, Charles H. Judd, Frederick J. Kelly, William H. Kilpatrick, Harold Rugg, and George A. Works.

Only the National Government...

By **HENRY STEELE COMMAGER**
Distinguished Historian and Author; Professor of History, Amherst College.

□ **The object of President Nixon's** "new federalism" (which is neither new nor federalism) is to balance the budget, dismantle ineffective social services, and provide more money for the military. It is submitted to the people not in this bald fashion, however, but as a reduction in Big Government, and a return to localism and voluntarism, that is, to "grass roots" democracy. The notion that voluntarism and local authorities can deal effectively with the national and global problems which crowd about us is without support in logic or history and is dangerous to the well-being of the Republic.

The fact is that for a century and a half almost every major reform in our political and social system has come about through the agency of the national government and over the opposition of powerful vested interests, states, and local communities.

It is the national government that freed the slaves, not the states or the people of the South, and there is no reason to suppose that these would ever have done so voluntarily. It is the national government that gave blacks the vote, guaranteed them political and civil rights, and finally—in the face of adamantine hostility from Southern states and bitter resentment from local communities—provided some measure of social equality, legal justice, and political rights for those who had been fobbed off with second-class citizenship for a century. (Ask the blacks if they could have "overcome" through voluntarism.)

It is the national government that finally gave the suffrage to women and that, in the past decade, has so greatly expanded the area of women's rights. It is the national government, too, that extended the suffrage to those over 18. And it is the federal courts that imposed a one-man, one-vote rule on reluctant states.

It is the national government that, in the face of the savage hostility of great corporations and of many states, finally provided labor with a Bill of Rights, wiped out child labor, regulated hours and set minimum wages, and spread over workers the mantle of social justice. (Ask the workingmen of America if they prefer to rely on the voluntarism of private enterprise rather than on government.)

It is the national government that first launched the campaign to conserve the national resources of the nation and that is now embarked upon a vast program to curb pollution and waste, and to save the waters and the soil for future generations—a program which Mr. Nixon's new federalism is prepared to frustrate. (Ask conservationists whether they can rely on the states or on voluntary action to resist giant oil, timber, coal, and mineral interests for the fulfillment of their fiduciary obligations to future generations.)

It is the national government, not states or private enterprise (which did their best to kill it), that finally provided Social Security for the victims of our economic system. It is the national government, not the voluntarism of the American Medical Association, that finally brought about medicaid and medicare—just as in Britain, France, Scandinavia, and Germany it was government, not private interests, that established national health insurance. (Ask the old, the poor, the unemployed, the "perishing classes of society" whether they

wish to go back to the voluntarism of private charity or the haphazardness of local welfare.)

It is the national government, through national courts, which has imposed "due process of law" on local police authorities and on the almost arbitrary standards of many states. We have only to compare the administration of justice and of prisons in local and federal jurisdictions to realize that many of the values of voluntarism and localism are sentimental rather than real.

It is the national government, not the local, which with its almost limitless resources has done most over the years to set the standards for education at all levels, to advance the cause of elementary education throughout the country, to stimulate higher education, and to ameliorate the awful inequalities of public education at all levels. As early as 1785, it set aside public land for the support of schools in what were to become the new western states, and later for support of universities, too. In 1862, the Morrill Land Grant Act provided the basis and the support for state universities all the way from Massachusetts to California.

It is the national government which through the Hatch Act of 1887, the Smith-Lever Act, and the Smith-Hughes Act underwrote agricultural research and education; which in the enlightened G.I. Bill of Rights assured a college education for millions of veterans; and which, in the past 20 years, has provided unparalleled support for public education at all levels and for research at the highest levels.

Nor should we overlook the contribution the national government has made to science through the Geological Survey, the Public Health Service, the Smithsonian Institution, and the National Science Foundation; the contribution to libraries and library science through the Library of Congress; the contribution to art through the great National Gallery of Art; the contribution to every field of the arts and the humanities through the two great national endowments in these areas.

The notion that voluntarism and local authorities can deal effectively with the national and global problems which crowd about us is dangerous to the well-being of the Republic.

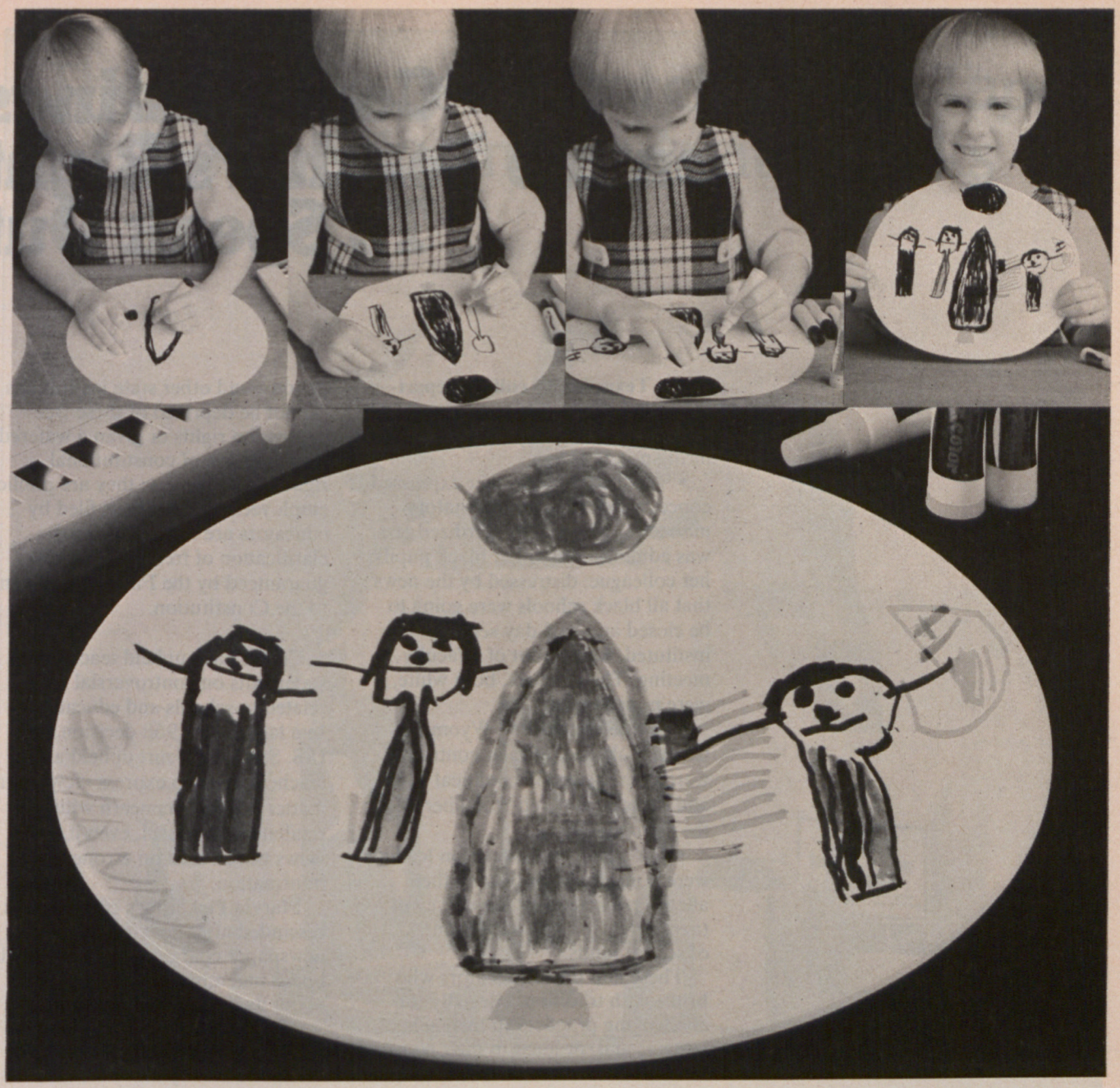
Now these and many other achievements of nationalism in the arena of health, welfare, conservation, economic equality, and justice are not to be explained on some theory that those who work for the nation are more compassionate than those who work on the local level. The explanation is at once more simple and more practical: because the problems we face are inescapably national, they cannot be solved by local or voluntary action. Pollution is a national problem; no one state can clean up the Mississippi River or the Great Lakes, regulate strip mining, or cleanse the air. Infringements of civil rights, drug abuse, inadequacies of medical and hospital care, mental illness and crime, urban blight, educational shortcomings, unemployment—these are not local but national in impact, and they will yield only to national programs of welfare and social justice. All of them are as national as defense, and all are essential to the well-being of the nation, and not even Mr. Nixon or the Secretary of Defense has proposed a return to the militia system, though that would be logical enough in the light of their philosophy.

Only the national government has the constitutional authority, the financial resources, the administrative talent, and the statesmanship to deal with these problems on a national scale.

The Nixon program is not a philosophy, it is an escape from philosophy; it is not a program, it is the fragmentation of a program. □

◆ *The November-December issue of* Today's Education *will carry a special feature on school finance that will include materials from the NEA Critical Issues Conference.*

The above article by Dr. Commager, prepared at the request of Journal *editors, is an expansion of an essay which he wrote for the* New York Times *© 1973 by the New York Times Company. Reprinted by permission.*



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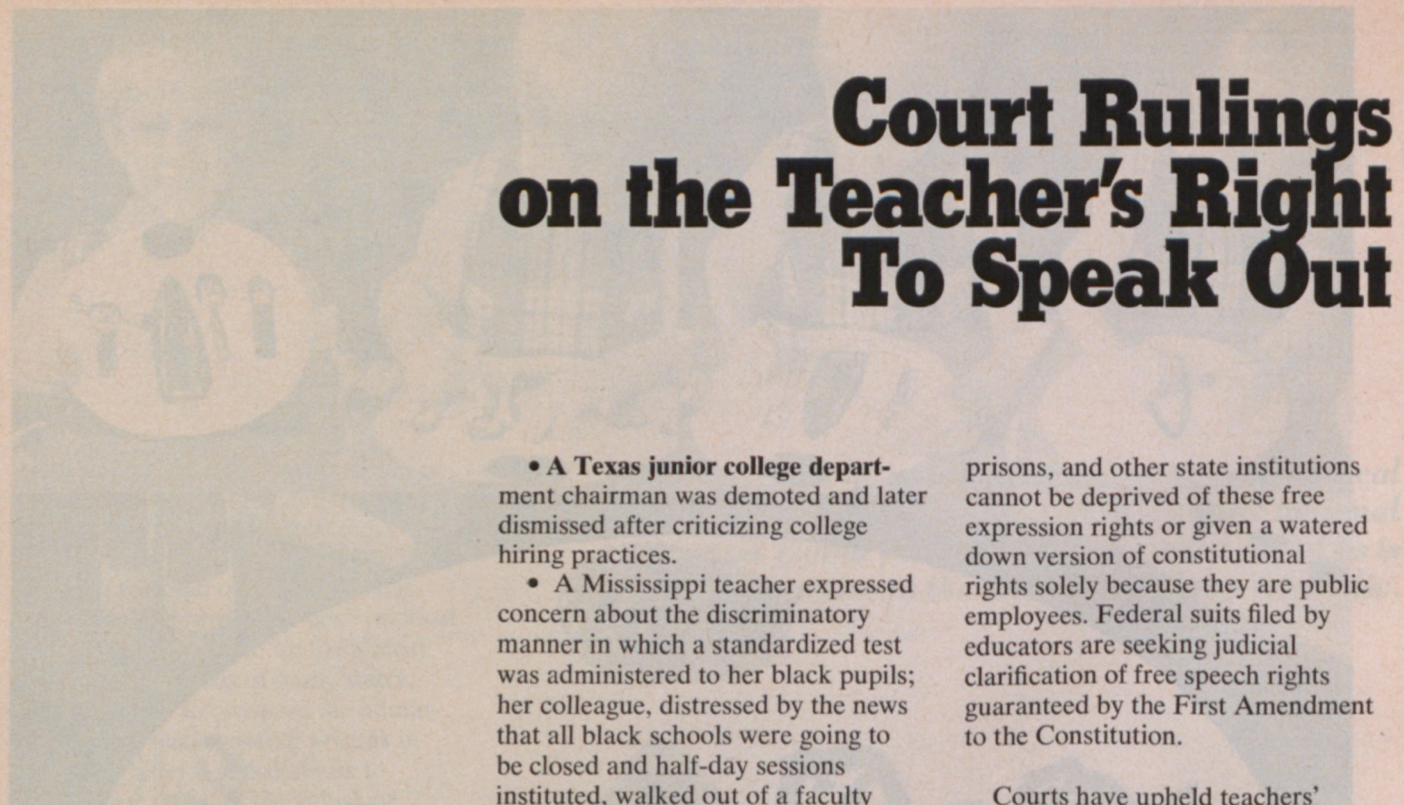
Court Rulings on the Teacher's Right To Speak Out



• **A Texas junior college depart-**ment chairman was demoted and later dismissed after criticizing college hiring practices.

• A Mississippi teacher expressed concern about the discriminatory manner in which a standardized test was administered to her black pupils; her colleague, distressed by the news that all black schools were going to be closed and half-day sessions instituted, walked out of a faculty meeting. The teachers, both white, were nonrenewed.

• Three nontenured Wyoming teachers allege that their contracts were nonrenewed for political views and dress considered "too liberal" for the community.

• Two Oregon association leaders were nonrenewed following their alleged participation in a survey of taxpayers' views on allocation of school funds.

These and other educators who broke with tradition, allegedly for challenging practices in their school systems and/or ideas in their communities, have taken their cases to federal district and appeals courts. They charge that their expressing views on controversial public issues motivated their employing boards to fire them in violation of their First, Fifth, and Fourteenth Amendment rights.

Recent court decisions indicate that a teacher's right to express views on matters of public concern is protected by the U.S. Constitution and that public employment may not be conditioned upon surrender of individual constitutional rights.

Public school teachers, including employees of local- and state-supported colleges and universities, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, Overseas Dependents' Schools, prisons, and other state institutions cannot be deprived of these free expression rights or given a watered down version of constitutional rights solely because they are public employees. Federal suits filed by educators are seeking judicial clarification of free speech rights guaranteed by the First Amendment to the Constitution.

Courts have upheld teachers' statements on controversial issues related to schools and education. In a landmark 1968 decision, the U.S. Supreme Court upheld a teacher's right to express views on a matter of public concern without retaliatory dismissal, even if those views were based on erroneous information.

Marvin Pickering's contract was rescinded after he wrote to a local newspaper charging that the school board had misinformed the public about its budget in a proposed school bond issue and that the superintendent had threatened to discipline faculty members who refused to support the board's position regarding the bond issue.

The U.S. Supreme Court declared, "On such a question free and open debate is vital to informed decision making by the electorate. Teachers are, as a class, the members of a community most likely to have informed and definite opinions as to how funds allotted to the operation of the schools should be spent. Accordingly, it is essential that they be able to speak out freely on such questions without fear of retaliatory dismissal."

Public discussion of financing of the operation of schools by teachers is constitutionally protected even

(*Continued on page* 54)

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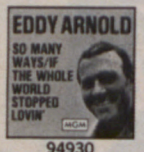

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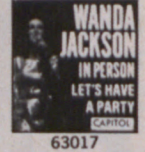

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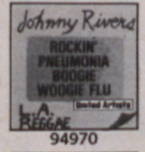

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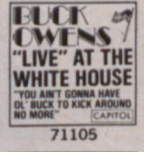

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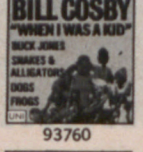

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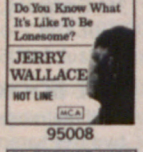

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(*Continued from page* 50)
when some of their statements are false. Said the Court: ". . . absent proof of false statements knowingly or recklessly made by him, a teacher's exercise of his right to speak on issues of public importance may not furnish the basis for his dismissal from public employment."

Pickering's critical letter contained several untrue statements that board members felt maligned motives, integrity, and competence of school administrators and board and revealed an absence of loyalty to his employers.

In the Pickering decision, the Supreme Court overruled the board's contention that Pickering's letter was so harmful to the operation of the school system as to warrant his dismissal.

The Court's conclusion set precedent in affirming free expression rights of teachers. The Court endorsed public criticism of school board policies or expression of views contrary to those of the administration by the teacher. However, the Court indicated that such activity might not be constitutionally protected if the school's operation or the teacher's classroom functioning were disrupted; the comments were knowingly inaccurate; the statements jeopardized the teacher's working relationship with colleagues or immediate superiors; or the topic were not a matter of legitimate public concern. It also noted that public criticism might not be upheld in situations involving "close working relationships" that require "personal loyalty and confidence."

The problem in free speech cases is, the Court said, "to arrive at a balance between the interest of the teacher, as a citizen, in commenting upon matters of public concern and the interest of the State, as an employer, in promoting the efficiency of the public services it performs through its employees."

Recent court decisions indicate that a teacher's right to express views on matters of public concern is protected by the U.S. Constitution and that public employment may not be conditioned upon surrender of individual constitutional rights.

Federal and state court decisions now follow *Pickering* in upholding a teacher's right to speak out freely on public questions relating to school matters without fear of reprisal.

In one such situation, a report delivered by a teacher at an association meeting concerning the school district's ability to raise teachers' salaries was taken by the superintendent as a deliberate attempt to undermine the administration's credibility. The teacher's subsequent nonrenewal, the Eighth Circuit ruled, was in reprisal for exercise of free speech rights. The appeals court said that his report of settlement of a suit which resulted in federal payments of previously withheld funds to the board was a matter of public concern and that he was nonrenewed for a constitutionally impermissible reason. The report, noted the court, did not interfere with his teaching, jeopardize his relationships with his colleagues, or result in disruption of the school district's operation.

Said the court: "There is no evidence that [he] deliberately sought to misrepresent his conversations with the county attorney in order to embarrass the administration. [His] inference . . . that the school board would continue to receive federal monies was at least as permissible as the pessimistic pronouncements by the administration that any amount received from the federal government would represent only a 'one shot' payment."

The school board has filed a petition for *certiorari* asking the U.S. Supreme Court to overturn this decision.

An Indiana teacher, president of his local association and also a member of the negotiating team, was nonrenewed. The court, directing that his contract be reissued, indicated that, at an association meeting, he had a right to criticize the board's bargaining tactics. He had warned association members against being "bought off" by the administration by concessions on small items at the expense of important ones. His principal believed the statement was directed at him.

Upholding the teacher's right to speak out on issues concerning the people he represented, the court indicated that ill will or friction resulting from his statements "may in large part be the result of an oversensitivity to criticism on the part of the board." The statement was not "so critical of the administration that it could be expected to have a serious effect on the operation of the school."

Another local president and his association successfully challenged

the constitutionality of a new school board policy prohibiting teachers from answering student questions on negotiations in progress, on the ground that such a policy is a prior restraint on academic freedom and the teacher's right to express views on controversial issues. In this New Jersey case, a state court, citing *Pickering,* said that a teacher's statements do not constitute a disruption in the operation of the school sufficient to justify such restrictions: "Certainly anything controversial may start a discussion. But apprehension of disturbance or controversy is no reason to bar freedom of speech. . . . Our constitution permits answers to controversial questions in the classroom."

And, a federal court reinstated three school community employees in California who had not been rehired because they had signed a petition urging defeat of an increased tax levy, since the board had failed to consider needs of the black community.

Similarly, an Arkansas federal court ordered reinstatement with back pay for a veteran teacher who had been nonrenewed for "insubordination" after she had complained about fumes from the schoolyard incinerator which blew into her classroom. The court noted that when a school board punishes "a teacher who seeks to protect the health and safety of herself and her pupils, the resulting intimidation can only cause a severe chilling, if not freezing, effect on the free discussion of more controversial subjects." The court further asserted that a "citizen, be he teacher or layman, has the legal right to seek redress, be it judicial or administrative, for substantial dangers and/or threats to his health and/or safety. . . ."

The Fifth Circuit found that a black female school bus driver had been discharged because she discussed racial segregation in county schools with the FBI and had actively supported a school boycott. Of public employees' exercise of First Amendment rights, the court said, ". . . such exercise is completely unrelated to and in no way conflicts" with job performance.

A white Mississippi assistant principal, also a teacher, was nonrenewed after he criticized school board and county government for violations of anti-nepotism laws. He and a group of "concerned citizens" sent a telegram (which he signed) to the state auditor's office, asking that a special audit of the county supervisor's books be conducted. In the course of this educator's unsuccessful campaign for state senator, he also questioned waste and graft in the school system and county government. Said the court: "The board was obliged under the circumstances to have shouldered the burden of showing the Court that plaintiff was not rehired for a permissible reason." His criticism of official negligence, the court found, was basically true.

A different fact situation led to nonrenewal of a New Hampshire journalism and English teacher. Chief negotiator for his local association, he alleged in federal court that failure of his school board to renew his contract occurred after his strenuous criticism, at a meeting of his local association, of the board, its negotiating team, and the superintendent. The federal court, finding no justifiable basis for the nonrenewal, noted: "Because the reason given by the board [he had 'lost his effectiveness as a teacher in this district'] for [his] dismissal is patently arbitrary, the inference is overwhelming that the action of the superintendent and the School Board was motivated primarily by the plaintiff's exercise of his constitutional rights of freedom of speech and association."

In granting him back pay, the judge declared, "To dismiss a teacher on the basis of uninvestigated complaints and unverified rumors and to admit that the decision does not depend on the truth or falseness of the complaints and rumors is patently unjust, arbitrary, and capricious. . . . The implications of such a decision are frightening." These charges were leveled because of rumors, phone calls, and complaints regarding unsubstantiated allegations of his touching or speaking personally to girls or having an affair with "someone." A school board member's daughter was among those complaining after the teacher and her father had had "words" during negotiations.

Retaliatory dismissals of public employees have, in certain instances, been upheld by state and federal courts which have relied on *Pickering.* Not all expressions of opinion on school or work related issues by teachers or other public employees have been held to be constitutionally protected. One federal court, for example, upheld the dismissal of an educator who complained to her elected state legislator about inadequate funding of a program for the handicapped. She wrote her letter of criticism on school stationery.

(*Continued on page* 58)

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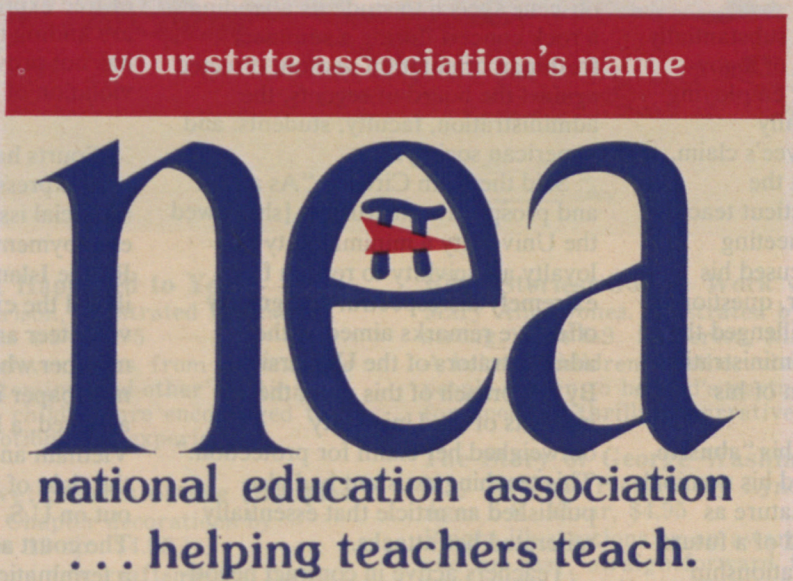

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(*Continued from page* 55)
The court observed that while she "had the right to write the letter," she "had no right . . . to speak for the board or to misrepresent its position."

A substitute teacher who altered the curriculum and criticized his college administration and the other faculty did not have his claim upheld by the Seventh Circuit. And the Alaska Supreme Court did not support the right of two teachers—employed in a system with only 30 teachers—to publish an open letter to the board criticizing the superintendent. The court objected to their statements because they implicated their immediate supervisor; false contentions were hard to disprove; the letter resulted in a one-year controversy; and allegations were made recklessly.

When free expression substantially interferes with functions of a government agency or other employing body, courts have generally not supported an employee's claim. A federal court said that the nonrenewal of a Connecticut teacher, who at a school board meeting reported in the press accused his supervisor of being a liar, questioned his competence, and challenged the integrity of the entire administrative staff, was not in violation of his free speech rights.

The court found that his "abusive language directed toward his nominal superior was of such a nature as to destroy any likelihood of a future amiable professional relationship between him and the administrative staff. To order that the plaintiff be rehired into this school system under [the supervisor's] . . . general supervision would invite friction and destroy staff morale. Those who would ultimately suffer as a result of such an enforced relationship would be the schoolchildren."

When free expression substantially interferes with functions of a government agency or other employing body, courts have generally not supported an employee's claim.

Similarly, firing a staff attorney of a legal aid society who criticized plea bargaining was upheld by federal, district, and appellate courts because his employers had concluded that he would be unwilling or unable to implement their policies to best serve the interest of indigent criminal defendants, whose liberty is endangered.

A teaching assistant at a Texas university lost her job after making a caustically critical and allegedly obscene speech to students attending a rock concert during a summer freshman orientation session, directed against the board of regents, the administration, faculty, students, and American society.

Said the Fifth Circuit: "As a past and prospective instructor, [she] owed the University a minimal duty of loyalty and civility to refrain from extremely disrespectful and grossly offensive remarks aimed at the administrators of the University. By her breach of this duty, the interests of the University outweighed her claim for protection." This teaching assistant had also published an article that essentially reiterated her attacks.

Teachers active in contract negotiations and other association business are not exempt from fulfilling reasonable school board requirements relating to classroom responsibilities. Some leaders who have alleged that their association affiliations led to loss of their jobs have failed to secure reinstatement when boards have proved they were remiss in meeting classes on time, failed to prepare required reports, discussed administrative reprimands with students, or used the classroom as a platform for views on organization matters.

In a few cases when bias against an association or a union was alleged, employers have been able to support nonrenewal actions based on the teacher's deficient performance. In upholding these employers' actions, courts are not denigrating the ideal of free expression but, rather, are finding that the individual teacher has not provided sufficient proof of violation of free speech rights.

Courts have also upheld teachers who express political beliefs or ideas on social issues unrelated to their employment. For example, a Rhode Island federal court declared illegal the expulsion of a Peace Corps volunteer and university faculty member who had printed in a newspaper in Chile, where he was assigned, a letter criticizing the war in Vietnam and Peace Corps policy on the right of volunteers to speak out on U.S. international relations. The court asserted: "To permit a termination such as this would be to value bureaucratic paranoia over the central commitment of the First Amendment to 'uninhibited, robust, and wide-open debate on public issues.' "

(*Continued on page* 60)

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(*Continued from page* 58)

A professor's right to testify in a court of law was upheld by the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit. A state college in Mississippi had denied him employment for another academic year allegedly because he had testified in a criminal obscenity trial in defense of the film, *The Fox*. The case is on appeal again after a trial court, on remand, denied his motion for a judgment.

The Second Circuit has upheld the right of a New York teacher to wear an armband in class to protest the war in Vietnam. Without proof of disruption, the policy prohibiting this conduct is not justified, the court noted.

The same appeals court agreed with a district court's findings that a geography professor at a Connecticut state college had been denied tenure without reasons in retaliation for participation in discussions concerning the Vietnam war. He had invited his colleagues to support a peace program and memorial service relating to the war.

In 1969, in an East Texas case, the contract of a black elementary school teacher was not renewed following his involvement outside the classroom in voter registration drives and in a successful campaign to secure black representation on the board of education. A board policy prohibited all faculty political activity, save voting.

The court, in a precedential ruling in favor of the teacher, stated: "The complete ban on the right of teachers to express political opinions and engage in political activity is inconsistent with the First Amendment guarantee of freedom of speech, press, assembly, and petition." Such restrictions have a "harmful effect on the community in depriving it of the political participation and interest" of citizens, including other teachers who might otherwise become involved. Small communities, the court noted, would face the loss of potential talent for democratic government, because to cut off one person from his work and salary would be a "warning that others would suffer the same fate, so that eventually all that would remain would be workers not feeling free to speak; they would be silent workers."

A North Carolina teacher's right to participate in extracurricular civil rights activity as a form of protected free expression was similarly upheld by the Fourth Circuit. This appeals court ruled that a school board's refusal to rehire a black nontenured teacher who had participated in demonstrations protesting racial discrimination and in voter registration drives was unconstitutional because its reasons were capricious and arbitrary and because the nonrenewal was indeed in retaliation for her civil rights extracurricular activity.

These recent decisions represent a marked departure from earlier rulings that infringed the academic freedom rights of teachers. A New York state court in 1940, for example, upheld rescission of the City College of New York's contract offer to Bertrand Russell. The British philosopher had been offered a full professorship, but the court held that his essays on sex and marriage showed his lack of "good moral character."

Clearly, courts are upholding vigorous expression on the part of teachers on subjects of public concern.

Constitutional litigation, often initiated with the support of NEA's DuShane Emergency Fund and the backing of its affiliates, has become a significant means for teachers to challenge unfair treatment violative of fundamental constitutional rights by school boards and administrators.

For, as the Supreme Court noted in a student armband case, ". . . in our system, undifferentiated fear or apprehension of disturbance is not enough to overcome the right to freedom of expression. Any departure from absolute regimentation may cause trouble. Any variation from the majority's opinion may inspire fear. Any word spoken, in class, in the lunchroom, or on the campus that deviates from the views of another person may start an argument or cause a disturbance. But our Constitution says we must take this risk. . . ."

—**Betty E. Sinowitz,** *special assistant, DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.*

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The Rights of Teachers. The basic American Civil Liberties Union guide to teachers' constitutional rights by David Rubin, NEA deputy general counsel. Stock #381-12022. 95 cents.

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Down with the Pallbearer School of Pedagogues!

By M. DALE BAUGHMAN
Professor of Education and Editor, Contemporary Education, *Indiana State University, Terre Haute.*

□ **Long ago, an Egyptian king by the** name of Amasis had a notorious routine. Every day he would get up at the crack of dawn, go to his office, and work like a Trojan the whole morning long. When the noon whistle blew, he stopped, pushed aside a heap of unsigned papers, punched the sundial, and quit. He was through for the day. From then on, King Amasis gathered his friends around him, and they swapped funny stories.

One of his closest friends and advisers took him aside one day and said, "Amasis, Old Scout, we hate to tell you this, but people are talking. They think a king should sit in state upon the royal throne and be a symbol of dignity, not enjoy himself with his friends." King Amasis pondered for a moment and then replied, "When an archer goes into battle, he strings his bow until it is taut. When the shooting is over, he unstrings the bow again. If he didn't, it would lose its snap and would be no good to him the next time he needed it." The reign of Amasis, incidentally, was said to have been the most prosperous Egypt ever had.

The subject of the story is joy—a subject worthy of attention in education today.

American secondary education has one frightful weakness: It has not devised any sensible way of promoting joy in its institutions of learning and does not now show capabilities for solving the problem. Perhaps the task of making that period of time youngsters spend in secondary schools joyful is too great. The idealism expressed in the words of a song, "I'd like to build the world a home and furnish it with love, grow apple trees, honey bees, and snow-white turtle doves," may be beyond our reach.

Perhaps we educators should look back and count our wins and losses in dealing with students. If we are honest and discerning, we can measure both victories and defeats as well as identify the challenges that lie ahead. Where did we succeed? We succeeded where we cared enough to accept and respect the learner and his culture, where we understood and respected the parents, where we were perceptive enough to involve parents both in learning and teaching. We succeeded where we performed effectively our enabling role as educators, where we communicated our high though reasonable expectations for youth and their parents. We succeeded where we made possible that stab of joy for many learners.

Where did we fail? We failed where our caring was superficial and discriminatory, where routines and organizational structure stood in the way of minorities and of poor and working-class people to reach their potential. We failed where joy did not abound in our schools.

What is joy? There are probably scores of different meanings for this word, *joy,* including delight, gaiety, happiness, pleasure, well-being, exuberance, good fortune, success, achievement, and just plain fun. To me, joy suggests an inner harmony with one's physical and human environment. Pupils, teachers, and principals—all are constantly reaching for that inner harmony.

To perform a task or role better

The Price of Productivity: Who Pays?

To me, joy suggests an inner harmony with one's physical and human environment. Pupils, teachers, and principals—all are constantly reaching for that inner harmony.

than most and to reap the recognition for having done so contribute to the full and useful life. A succession of failures in school, with not even a smell of success, may be responsible for a student's negative self-image, which may, in turn, cause his delinquency. Schools without failure may be an impossibility; schools built on the promise of considerable success are both vital and possible.

Sometime or other we must face the fact that everybody is somebody. Each somebody wants, needs, and should have one or more peak experiences in secondary school. Disappointingly, many students graduate from high school without ever having been in the limelight in school even for an instant.

Secondary education must be designed to ensure one or more peak experiences for each boy and girl. Only then can the American dream for education become a reality. And the wrecker will become a builder; the spectator, a performer; and the delinquent, a good citizen.

Although some observers disagree, articles in various publications announce that the youth revolution—or the youth movement—is over. Whatever it was, it made such an impact that our society is more than ever influenced by our young. American people of all ages are now faced with the necessity of recognizing and living with the profound changes youth has wrought in the past few years.

The movement may or may not be over, but the idealism and altruism of youth is an enduring fact. As Maria Montessori observed, "A corn seed knows how to become a corn stalk as it grows. If rain is lacking, a seed may not properly fulfill its destiny. But it will continue to try, to the end."

Adult society has made it possible for youth to become aware of such twentieth century phenomena as the population explosion, the knowledge explosion, and the technology explosion. Perhaps one explosion that teachers, parents, and youth leaders have not brought dramatically to youths' attention is the opportunity explosion.

In this creative, ever-changing society of ours, opportunity is everywhere. Yet the young are somewhat myopic or somehow unwilling to recognize it. Some never see an opportunity because it so often masquerades as a hard job, an undignified role, or a boring monotony. Others sense the existence of opportunity but foolishly seize only a small measure. Still others play with opportunity as children play with sand at the seashore. They fill their hands with sand and then let the grains sift through until all are gone.

Already it's too late for those youth who, upon reaching their first destination crisis, chose the "up, up, and away" route on the wings of drugs to nowhere. Little did they know that four things do not come back—the spoken word, the sped arrow, the past life, and the neglected opportunity. To those youth and their parents who care enough to ask where the best opportunities for the future lie, we in education must answer quickly, "They exist within people themselves."

We must do even more. Dramatically and convincingly, we must communicate the idea that an opportunity is found in every obligation. In a very real sense, obligating oneself to live and work responsibly is one giant step toward maturity. To those maturing youth who seek obligations and assume responsibilities, the opportunity explosion will become a joyful reality.

A strange, unhappy philosophy is afoot whose adherents insist that education must never be fun—that laughter and learning are incompatible. These prophets of gloom have always been on the scene, though. No doubt, as one commentator has noted, the sound of laughter emanated from Plato's academy and raised many a Greek eyebrow.

Shakespeare recognized the need for comic relief, even in the presence of death. But the pallbearer school of pedagogues steadfastly declines to accept the truth about people—that, where there is no joy, there is no real life or growth.

A glance at any professional journal, a visit to any professional

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Just as a bicycle-chain may be too tight, so may one's carefulness and conscientiousness be so tense as to hinder the running of one's mind.

—**William James** in *Talks to Teachers on Psychology, 1899.*

Down with the Pallbearer School of Pedagogues!

meeting must convince us that we take ourselves too seriously. Many of us believe, and the more renowned among us believe it the more, that the theories we propound and the techniques we apply are cogent, valid, and helpful. We should believe in what we do, and yet, as long as we fail to question our beliefs and practices, we neither achieve nor encounter a therapeutic sense of humor.

What is humor? It is that soothing and compensating feeling which prevents us from being overwhelmed by the apparent seriousness of life. Humor can dissipate the fog and make life more enjoyable and far less threatening. This is its chief function.

More should be said and written about humor, for so many think it means no more than the ability to tell a funny story or respond to one. Actually, a sense of humor refers to a complete philosophy of life. Some characteristics of those who possess a healthy sense of humor are these: the ability to avoid and resolve tensions; to share in the joys of others; to live tolerantly—laughing with people, not at them.

Humor is basically intellectual. Some describe it as a sense of proportion, an ability to perceive likeness and unlikeness, with a special delight in the incongruent. Others call it a safety valve. Young people say they like teachers and leaders who have a sense of humor but they want good humor. They abhor nothing so much as the twisted forms which they call *sarcasm*.

According to Sam Levenson, "Many people are convinced that children have to be born with an appetite for wit; otherwise, they are fated to live out their lives as gloomy Guses and mournful Maudes. It isn't so. When youngsters are exposed to humor, they have a good chance of acquiring a taste for it. Parents [and, we would add, school] expose children to literature, music, and other of life's good things. Why not include a portion of fun in the diet?"

People with a talent for music take music lessons. Those with a gift for drawing are taught art. But no one teaches humor to funny boys and girls. Teaching humor would not mean teaching people to make fun of things, but teaching them to understand things. Humor at its highest is a part of the interpretation of life.

In this here-and-now age, we had better find more effective ways to relate, to motivate, to inspire. If education does not make it, nothing does. Laughing together and enjoying together is one small but potent way to help education make it.

During the school year, many occasions will arise when a touch of humor can save the day. Will we be ready? We should be, for we are all vice-presidents for joy and humor in learning.

The first essential of a happy life is a willingness to be amused. Most children are willing. How about teachers and principals? □

◆ *For more discussion on the importance of joy and humor in learning, see the May 1973 issue of the* NASSP Bulletin, *which carries the full text of Dr. Baughman's speech on this topic delivered at the 1973 annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.*

Laughing together and enjoying together is one small but potent way to help education make it.

The Price of Productivity: Who Pays?

NEA Resolution (73-25) on Accountability

The National Education Association recognizes that the term "accountability," as applied to public education, is subject to varied interpretations. The Association maintains that educational excellence for each child is the objective of the education system. The Association believes that educators can be accountable only to the degree that they share responsibility in educational decision-making and to the degree that other parties who share this responsibility—legislators, other government officials, school boards, parents, students, and taxpayers—are also held accountable.

The Association will seek the proper base professionally, legally, and legislatively for educators to achieve optimum and appropriate accountability programs.

By ERNEST R. HOUSE
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□ **Setting: A classroom in a small, independent** college in a Chicago suburb. The class (a real one), composed of local elementary school pupils who are poor readers, meets several times a week. The time is within the past five years. Four or five teachers are in charge, and they yell at the children, strike them, choke them, and make them crawl around blindfolded. The purpose is to raise the pupils' reading scores.

Parents, who pay for their children to participate in the program, are seated outside the classroom watching the proceedings through an observation window. Some, who cannot bear to watch, sit with their backs to the window.

The unique feature of this program—described as "forced learning"—is the physical treatment of the pupils, which the director believes gets the desired results: a dramatic increase in reading scores. One mother says that her son has made progress in spite of some adjustment problems. (For several weeks he vomited every day and begged not to be sent to the class, but after a while he got over that, although he still cried occasionally.)

But this essay is not about the desperation of these schoolchildren; it is about balancing means and ends, about applying mechanical solutions to learning problems.

This program, with its single-minded purpose of raising reading scores, can only have resulted in misshapen lives. While most people would find such a class (which, happily, no longer exists, having been closed down by the County Department of Public Health) repugnant, many cannot see how dangerously close to this brutal example the current

References
[1]Robert E. Stake, "Measuring What Learners Learn," in Ernest R. House, ed., *School Evaluation: The Politics and Process* (Berkeley, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1973).
[2]Michael Scriven, "Goal-Free Evaluation," in House, *op. cit.*
[3]Stake, in House, *op. cit.*
[4]James G. March, "Model Bias in Social Action," *Review of Educational Research,* Vol. 42, No. 4 (Fall 1972).
[5]Alice M. Rivlin, *Systematic Thinking for Social Action* (Washington, The Brookings Institution, 1971).
[6]*An Experiment in Performance Contracting: Summary of Preliminary Results,* Office of Economic Opportunity Pamphlet 3400-5 (February 1972).
[7]Stake, in House, *op. cit.*
[8]Harvey A. Averch and others, *How Effective Is Schooling? A Critical Review and Synthesis of Research Findings* (Santa Monica, California, Rand Corporation, January 1972).
[9]Alan A. Small, "Accountability in Victorian England," *Phi Delta Kappan,* Vol. LIII, No. 7 (March 1972).

The material in this article will appear in a different form in a forthcoming book on accountability edited by Ralph A. Smith for John Wiley and Sons.

accountability schemes, if implemented, might push public education or how the educational institutions are themselves similarly beaten into productivity by the stronger institutions of the society.

There are at least two accountability movements. Both are concerned about the performance of the school, but in very different ways. To one group, performance means "productivity"; to the other, it means "responsiveness." For some time, many minority groups have been incensed with middle-class domination of the school and the school's lack of response to their children's needs. This situation is quite different from one involving demands for greater productivity. Increased productivity, in fact, may be incompatible with increased responsiveness.

Great concentration on raising achievement scores will make the schools less sensitive to minority communities. Less tangible goals become extraneous. The technology and regimentation of the school harden. Accountability in this article refers to productivity, which I believe represents the dominant stream of the accountability movement.

Most accountability schemes—whether they be performance contracting, cost-benefit analysis, performance-based teacher education, or whatever—apply a mechanical solution, a power solution, to the reform of complex social organizations. These schemes are exasperatingly similar. First, there is a small set of prespecified goals. Second, some measure of output is established—often only one measure, such as achievement scores. Third, people with good results are rewarded, or people with bad results are punished. The output measures are maximized with little concern for limits or side effects or other outcomes of what we call "education."

In most schemes, the higher levels of authority formulate the goals, so that accountability becomes a strongly hierarchical matter. Teachers formulate goals for students; administrators, for teachers; school boards, for administrators. Even where goals are formulated by lower levels, the accountability data are reported to those above. Students report to teachers; teachers, to administrators; local agencies, to state agencies; and so on. Education is organized like a gigantic corporation in which each subordinate is strictly accountable to his boss. Few schemes suggest that the teacher be accountable to the student, to the parent, to his peers, or even to his own conscience. In essence, the individual is accountable to the institution, but the institution is not accountable to the individual.

I believe such schemes are simplistic, unworkable, contrary to empirical findings, and ultimately immoral. They will lead to suspicion, acrimony, inflexibility, cheating, and finally control—which I believe is their real purpose. For in their excessive emphasis on prespecifying what people should do and in their reliance on woefully simplistic measurements of success they can never hope to capture reality.

The evidence against the efficacy of such schemes is impressive. Concentration on a few objectives leads to distortion and unanticipated, often malevolent, side effects. This is true even where knowledge is precisely defined. In a recent antipollution campaign in Los Angeles, efforts to reduce hydrocarbons and carbon monoxide succeeded—only to increase the level of nitrous oxides, equally harmful. Tinkering with social systems is enormously more complex.

Furthermore, contrary to popular belief, there is no significant evidence to suggest that elaborate prespecification results in better learning. I know of fewer than five studies on the effectiveness of "behavioral objectives,"[1] and those are equivocal. At least one study indicates that the more attention paid to planning objectives, the less paid to immediate pupil concerns.

Evaluation of results does not require elaborate prespecification of objectives. The two leading evaluation theorists have eschewed the extensive use of elaborated objectives in evaluation. Scriven[2] has contended that what the program developer intends is not so important as the actual outcomes of the program. Knowledge of the developer's purposes may actually impede the evaluator. Stake[3] has contended that specification requires an inordinate

amount of time and effort and overemphasizes the goals that are easiest to measure.

In fact, one of the leading theorists on the subject of organizations contends that organizational goals must be discovered rather than prespecified.[4] Otherwise, the organization will never grow and change in the direction of more interesting values. The good that an organization does must be determined after the fact rather than prespecified. Organizations need *looser* control mechanisms rather than tighter ones.

Where program planning and budgeting, cost-effectiveness analysis, and similar techniques have been applied most extensively, the results have been horrendous. The Pentagon, the major user and sponsor of those techniques, has an incredible record of billions of dollars in cost overruns for weapons systems that do not work.

Nor have those techniques worked very well when applied to social programs. A former Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare states: "Ingenious analysts will be able to place shadow prices on the nonincome benefits of social action programs. But these estimates are likely to be shaky and highly judgmental."[5] The Office of Economic Opportunity did conduct a full-scale experiment on the performance-contracting technique.[6] The results indicate that the technique did not succeed even on its own terms; it did not raise achievement scores. Interestingly, the explanations offered to me by some performance contractors for their failure are the same as those given by teachers: One cannot raise scores that easily, and children are difficult to teach.

Standardized achievement tests themselves are invalid measures for judging the success of school programs.[7] They were designed to predict future academic success, not to measure past school learnings. They measure only a small set of the child's abilities and learnings. Furthermore, major differences in test scores demonstrably are not caused by differences in schools but by other factors. Yet, in spite of these known deficiencies, tests are almost invariably used as the sole criterion of measurement in most accountability schemes.

In sum, the accountability schemes advanced for education are on very shaky ground. They are extremely rationalistic, mechanistic, and far removed from the actual workings of social systems. They do not make good sense, and the evidence of their ineffectiveness lies heavily against them. But one of the signal characteristics of the accountability proponents is their insensitivity to evidence. When persistent, reasoned argument is greeted by no response, one begins to suspect ulterior motivation.

What about the economies of productivity? The fact is that the grand total for educational expenditures now stands at $90.5 billion. Over the past decade, the costs have risen dramatically. Total expenditures of the public schools for 1972-73 are estimated at $51.8 billion—an increase of 162.3 percent over 1962-63. The basic purpose of the accountability movement is to hold down mounting educational costs at all levels, including that of higher education.

I believe that a careful history of the current accountability movement will show that it was ultimately an attempt by economic institutions, working through and with the government, to contain educational spending and protect their share of the gross national product. During the same decade, corporation profits as a percent of gross national product declined slightly. It is not surprising that the U.S. Chamber of Commerce was early in sounding the accountability trumpet. The U.S. Commissioner of Education sounded the same theme. By attaching increases in funding levels to gains in achievement scores, the accountability proponents could effectively stifle large funding increases, since group achievement scores are extremely difficult to move either up or down except by manipulating test behavior.

This theme is illustrated by a recent Rand Corporation study entitled "How Effective Is Schooling?"[8] (Rand does not think small), a superficial review of some previous research. The report says, "There seem to be opportunities for significant redirections and in some cases reductions in educational expenditures without deterioration

□ It is simple reality that many parents are dissatisfied with our educational institutions. However, although they may have negative feelings about the politicians, the school board, the administration, or the rules and regulations, it is the teacher they attack, because the teacher is someone close at hand—someone they can get at.

We are now finding in some states that student achievement data are being reported on a classroom basis, so the teacher's professional destiny, his standing in the community, and his relationship with the pupils become directly linked to an assumed correlation between his students' achievement and his own performance. This is completely wrong, and it's one of the fallouts of this whole accounting movement that we must brand absolutely intolerable. It leads the public to believe that the simple solution to educational shortcomings is to do something about the teacher rather than to look at any of the infinite number of variables that create the teaching circumstance.

The united teaching profession has to pursue at least two strategies. One strategy is to stop the destructive practices that are occurring in the name of accountability. A second strategy needs to be developed, however, to encourage the good practices growing out of the accountability phenomenon.

In addressing those strategies, we must give serious attention to such tactics as public information programs, collective bargaining back home in the local school district, and political involvement and legislative influence at the state and the federal levels. We must also develop a policy base and a perspective from which the practicing classroom teacher can discriminate among the good systems and the bad systems.

So in the final analysis, the accountability issue is real, the public interest is real, and without getting into any quibbling about its reasonableness or unreasonableness, we simply have to respond to accountability in a meaningful, effective, and, hopefully, aggressive way. That response will probably have to be more complicated than a simple yes or no.

—**Terry Herndon,** *NEA Executive Secretary, speaking at an accountability conference in Denver, May 1973.*

in quality." The first part of the report spends some time discussing the inadequacy of achievement tests as a measure of school output. It then proceeds to review studies that used test scores.

True to Rand's econometric soul, the report focuses on multiple regression analyses like the Coleman report. The analyses enter a small set of independent variables to see how they vary with one dependent variable, in this case test scores. Multiple regression analysis is a useful technique but also a delicate one. Much depends on which independent variable is entered first. If family background covaries with quality of school, entering family background first also extracts the variance shared in common with quality of school. Hence, in the analysis, quality of school will account for a very small percent of the gain in achievement scores. If one has inadvertently left out an important variable, including it may turn the entire results around, making the most important variable the least important.

Ignoring their own caveats about the technique and the invalidity of test scores as the measure of school output, the Rand people conclude that test scores are insensitive to expenditures. Hence, since a number of equal variants of the existing system are available, pick the one that costs the least and thus save money. (Note the accountability hallmark: a mechanical analysis involving a few set goals.)

Although the Rand report was released after the report of the President's Commission on School Finance, according to Norman Karsh, the Commission director, the report greatly influenced Commission recommendations on how federal funds for education should be budgeted. Thus, by the alchemy of the accountability movement, a modest research review employing inadequate techniques and invalid measures is converted into major policy.

By similarly impugning the performance of the schools, the accountability proponents have thrown the educational institutions on the defensive. Other public groups with long-felt complaints have joined in the criticism. But the proof of the basic direction of the movement is given in its results. Educational expenditures are being trimmed drastically. Domestic corporate profits, after taxes, were up 17 percent in 1972 over 1971, with a similar increase likely for 1973. Productivity can be increased in two ways: by increasing output or by decreasing costs. The accountability movement does not seek to hold the schools accountable, that is, responsive to their clientele. Rather it seeks to find them culpable—to fix blame and hold down costs.

In actuality, school performance as measured by test scores has not declined. For decades, test scores have been gradually creeping upward. Compared to that of 19 other countries, American education looks quite respectable. (See page 99 of this issue.) So in spite of criticism, on the basis of test scores, Americans have not sacrificed quality education to quantity. Yet costs have risen dramatically and the productivity index has suffered.

This is not the first time that "accountability" has been applied to education.[9] In Victorian England between 1851 and 1858, the public grant to education had risen from 265,500 pounds to 973,950. During the same time period, the Crimean War had cost England 78 million pounds. There was diligent search for ways to lower public costs.

The Newcastle Report of 1858 recommended that pedagogical efficiency be achieved by granting funds only to those schools and teachers who could show that average student attendance reached 140 days a year and that children had attained a certain degree of knowledge as ascertained by examiners. ". . . the examination will exercise a powerful influence over the efficiency of the schools."

Examinations based on performance criteria, similar to American tests of today, were developed for the 3 R's. The new examinations were successful in reducing governmental expenditures from 813,441 pounds in 1861 to 76,000 pounds by 1865. Educationally they were a disaster. Since the teachers' jobs were dependent on the number of "passes," they concentrated on achieving the maximum level of pupil proficiency in the tests, thereby lowering the overall quality of education.

In 1868, after six years of trial for this approach, J. Kay-Shuttleworth, an educational critic, said:

"The Revised Code has constructed nothing; it has only pulled down. It has not simplified the administration. . . . It has disorganized the whole system. . . . These ruins are its only monuments. It has not succeeded in being efficient; for it wastes the public money without producing the results which were declared to be its main object."

Matthew Arnold, then a school inspector, said in his general report for 1867 that the new code had lowered the quality of education from its 1861 level. He commented: "Our present system of grants does harm to schools and their instruction by resting its grants too exclusively, at any rate, upon individual examination, prescribed in all its details beforehand by the Central Office, and necessarily mechanical. . . ."

The parallel between the Crimean War and the Vietnam War, the uncontrolled defense expenditures, the motivation to reduce costs, the methods for doing so, and the effects on education are all too clear.

Like the child who is beaten to increase his achievement, education is prodded by the economic institutions to increase its productivity. As with the child, aberration and distortion are inevitable. The damage can be great and long lasting, no less with the institution than with the child. Education's low status in the institutional pecking order and the varied and perennial attacks on its substance are major reasons for its morose disposition and its passive but stubborn resistance to change.

Our social systems are more complex than we realize; our social science models are very primitive. Intuitively, we know a great deal about our social world and often we implicitly know what to do. Usually we cannot delineate this knowledge, however. Sometimes our primitive rational models are useful in helping us gain some insights. Sometimes they are not. When we believe that our simplistic rational models represent the complexities of reality, we are on very dangerous ground.

Rational models should be used to inform human judgment, not to substitute for it. An even greater danger than the massive loss of funds, severe though that may be, is the distortion at the state and local levels caused by teachers and administrators trying to produce the kinds of results demanded. We may yet see classrooms not far removed from the one described at the beginning of this article. The tragedy of a simplistic model is that it often warps life to fit its mold. And we can be sure that the costs will be borne by those at the bottom of the system. □

The Rhetoric and the Realities of

By ALLAN C. ORNSTEIN
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Associate Professor of Education, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle.

□ **Surely, most people agree that everyone, including** teachers and school administrators, should be held accountable for their work. But what many educators object to, even fear, is the oversimplified concept that defines accountability as the sole responsibility of the teacher or principal.

Numerous other people bear some responsibility for student performance, and they should also be held accountable if we are going to employ a constructive model. These include parents, community residents, school board members, taxpayers, government officials, and the student himself—for the learner's state of health, cognitive abilities, motivation, self-concept, family background, and even age all affect learning.

Accountability advocates often tell us that we must disregard family characteristics because they are used to alibi student failure. This ignores a wealth of research data which consistently shows that the family is the most important variable associated with student achievement scores.[1] Another large fraction of the variation associated with student learning depends on the characteristics of the student's classmates.[2] Only a small fraction of the variation is explained by school variables. Yet the current implication of accountability holds the teacher responsible for student performance—connoting, at best, the lay public's oversimplification or ignorance of the learning process and, at worst, the rise of politics in education and the antiteacher syndrome that is spreading across the nation.

Accountability, however we describe the concept, in its simplest form means to hold someone (or some group or agency) accountable for certain behavior or actions. Although accountability is a relatively new concept in the educational literature, the original idea dates back to the ancient Greek philosophers who stressed accountability through their words and actions.

As the cup of hemlock touched Socrates' lips back in 339 B.C., history recorded perhaps for the first time the act of holding a teacher accountable for what he was teaching. Four hundred years later, Jesus Christ was to be held accountable for what He taught. Then in 1925, John Scopes was tried and convicted for teaching about the theory of evolution.

Each of us is able to recall recent cases, even closer to home, concerning the dismissal of a teacher on the grounds that his reading list, learning activities, or political, moral, or religious interpretations ran contrary to the values of the community. This concept of accountability (holding a teacher responsible for the views he expresses) is certainly not new.

A somewhat different view of accountability also has a history going back into time, that is, accountability not only for what should be taught but for how it is taught. In the medieval universities, professors and tutors were paid directly by the students. The law students at Bologna during the middle of the thirteenth century extracted this form of accountability: Writes Friedrich Heer, "The students, who had the whip hand, kept their professors to a punctual observance of the lecture timetable, under threat of financial penalties, and revenged themselves on unpopular teachers by boycotts."[3]

On still another level, there has always been an implied form of accountability in terms of educational goals, compulsory attendance, student assessment, teacher ratings, evaluation of programs, duties of school administrators, and budget costs. As HEW Assistant Secretary for Education Sidney Marland puts it: ". . . accountability has always been with us. Until now it did not have a name."[4]

In the past, teachers and/or the schools were held responsible by those they served for what should or should not be taught, but responsibility for learning

The authors adapted this article from *Reforming Metropolitan Schools* by Allan C. Ornstein, Daniel U. Levine, and Doxey A. Wilkerson, to be published in 1974 by Goodyear. Copyright, Allan C. Ornstein.

Accountability

what was taught resided with the learner. The concept of accountability based on the ability of the educational delivery system to assure successful student learning is a product of our times.

Americans have long put great faith in the ability of the environment to shape our lives and in the extent to which changes in it can improve man and society. Both equal educational opportunity and institutional responsibility found support in the prevailing psychological theories of environmentalism and behaviorism. The early compensatory programs of the 1960's, followed by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, served as outlets for the environmentalists' theory of intellectual development and the behaviorists' theory of changing human characteristics.

To help increase the federal commitment to compensatory education, the Johnson Administration commissioned James Coleman[5] to conduct a nationwide study on the lack of equal educational opportunity for minorities. This was the largest educational research enterprise ever conducted (the final report alone ran to some 1,300 pages, including 750 pages of statistics) to find out what was considered obvious: that there was a vast difference in the quality of schools attended by nonwhites and whites. "You know yourself," Coleman said to an interviewer, "that the difference is going to be striking."

He was wrong and was, in the words of one of his associates, staggered to find the *lack* of difference. In essence, Coleman found that the effects of the home environment on school achievement far outweighed those of the school program. The Office of Education issued a communication stating that the survey had been "carried to its logical conclusion; the Coleman Report is out of print." This, in effect, obscured the findings.

When Christopher Jencks[6] published his research on *Inequality*, he invited attacks from both the political left and right. He was branded both as an advocate of "racism" and of "mediocrity." On the basis of his data, Jencks contended that the most important factor related to school success was

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The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) has dozens of documents and articles on accountability, including the following:

Educational Accountability and Evaluation by Sheila Krystal and Samuel Henrie. Materials on the philosophy of accountability, its uses as a political tool, who is accountable to whom, school program goals and their evaluation. ED 067 514 (PREP package No. 35).

"Accountability Which Transcends" by Louise M. Berman. Considers the narrow goals characteristic of most accountability models and discusses ways to transcend them by linking goals to broader values. 11 pp. ED 065 924.

Legislation by the States: Accountability and Assessment in Education by Phyllis Hawthorne. Reproduces copies of or excerpts from legislation enacted through May 1972 in 19 states for statewide assessment and accountability programs and PPBS systems. 34 pp. ED 069 050.

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—Lorraine Poliakoff, *ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education (cosponsored by the NEA).*

♦ *NEA has developed a bibliography on accountability—("Accountability in Education: An Annotated Bibliography") and a briefing memo for teachers ("Accountability and the Teacher"). To obtain free copies, write to Programs for Professional Excellence, Room 708, NEA Center, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

The Rhetoric and Accountability

American legislators, school boards, parents, administrators, students, and teachers have an interlocking responsibility which cannot be unduly prorated to any one group. As a teacher, I don't think I am responsible if a kid doesn't eat breakfast—if the powers that be withdraw ESEA money from my school—if a racist school board member is elected and promotes racist school policies.

—Lauri Wynn,
teacher; president, Wisconsin Education Association, Milwaukee.

the student's characteristics and concluded that as long as everyone had an equal chance there would always be inequality. Compensatory education, heralded as a vehicle to redress the imbalance, had failed; no amount of educational spending could make a significant difference in bringing about equality. To support his egalitarian views, Jencks suggested redistribution of national income to achieve economic equality, regardless of ability.

Findings from both liberal and conservative sources documented minimal and sometimes zero returns from compensatory education spending.[7] President Nixon vividly illustrated the conservative push toward accountability. In his 1970 educational message, he related dollars spent to the results in student accomplishment: "From these considerations we derive another concept: *Accountability*. School administrators and schoolteachers alike are responsible for their performance, and it is in their interest as well as in the interest of their pupils that they be held accountable." Three years later, he defended his budget cuts in educational and social programs on the basis that many of these programs were "poorly conceived and hastily put together."

Despite reservations and despite the pitfalls of accountability, state legislatures and state offices of public instruction have moved forward with accountability plans of their own, apparently with little caution or a clear understanding of the implications.

In response to the demand for accountability, state legislators have enacted numerous statutes in the last several years. The Cooperative Accountability Project (CAP), a seven-state repository for accountability projects,[8] reports that as of 1972, 23 states had enacted some kind of accountability legislation (some states have passed more than one law). Seven of these states were anticipating the introduction of additional legislation in 1973 and nine others were planning to introduce bills for the first time or to reintroduce measures that did not pass before.[9]

In addition, many state educational agencies are developing their own testing and evaluation programs that are, in effect, accountability plans. As CAP notes, "It should not be assumed that states without legislation are not, in fact, establishing and implementing programs in these areas."[10]

The majority of the 23 states included in the CAP analysis have taken the position that accountability should be mandatory, leaving the specifics to the discretion of local districts. The laws range in content from definite and explicit to vague and broad guidelines, and it is difficult to categorize them. Not only do stated sections of the law sometimes have multiple requirements, but how to interpret the legislation is not always clear. With this in mind, it appears that 13 of the 23 states call for the assessment of students; 10 require management goals and methods of evaluation; and one established an advisory body to recommend a plan; eight require cost performance analysis; eight require evaluation of professional personnel (with only two giving personnel the right to appeal); and five require citizen involvement.

The California, Colorado, Florida, Maryland, and Michigan laws are often considered to contain some of the jargon commonly found in the accountability literature. The most comprehensive accountability legislation is included in California's Stull Act, the first law in the nation to require that competence of certificated personnel be measured in part in terms of student performance. The evaluation process in each

school district must include (a) establishment of standards of expected student progress in each area of study and methods for assessing that progress; (b) assessment of personnel in relation to such standards of expected student progress; (c) assessment of personnel in their performance of other duties adjunct to their regular assignment; and (d) assessment of their effectiveness in maintaining control and preserving a suitable learning environment. When a certificated employee's performance is inconsistent with the standards prescribed by his school board, the employing authority must tell him so in writing, make specific recommendations as to how he can improve his performance, and assist him in doing so. The California Education Code also provides that any charges leading to dismissal procedures and revocation of certificates for incompetence or unprofessional conduct must be accompanied by an evaluation.[11]

Events in Florida are even more disturbing for educators. As part of the accountability spin-off, a bill has been introduced in the legislature that would wipe out all tenure and continuing contracts. The measure is being advocated for purposes of facilitating accountability plans.[12]

The implications should be obvious to both professors of education and teachers alike. If the bandwagon picks up in tempo, political fighting should intensify. And if a large number of teachers and professors find themselves driving trucks or farmed out to Siberia, we will have learned who lacks political clout.

The NEA itself maintains that the accountability movement is a "warped attempt to apply business-industrial models to learning," and that it threatens "more and more students and teachers" with "punitive, ill-conceived, and probably inoperable legislation and directives." Accountability misapplied, the organization continues, can lead to "a closed system —to educational fascism—compelling . . . educators and students to comply with inhumane, arbitrarily set requirements. . . ."[13]

Many educators and citizens alike are confused about what accountability means. For this reason, it is easy to get different answers from various people to the same question on accountability, which, in turn, confuses the original intent and the issues related to the question.

At this juncture in history, the concept of accountability has become linked to many evolving educational trends. In fact, it has become a unifying theme related to management by objectives, cost-effectiveness audits, system analysis, performance contracting, voucher plans, community participation and community control, consumer education, competency-based training, assessment of teacher performance, bilingual and bicultural education, program evaluation, and a host of other trends. This umbrella aspect of accountability makes for easy public acceptance.

To date, the most comprehensive accountability models appear to have been developed by Stephen Barro,[14] Henry Dyer,[15] and Frederick McDonald and Garlie Forehand.[16] All three models stress the complexity of the data-gathering process and analysis methods needed to assign responsibility properly.

All the authors contend that it is difficult, if not impossible, to disentangle the effects of several contributions to student learning. For this reason, Dyer and McDonald and Forehand suggest that no one individual should be held accountable; the school is matched with similar schools, and the entire staff of the school is held collectively responsible. *Interestingly, all the authors seem to have serious doubts about the actual implementation of any accountability plan in the real world.*

Briefly, Dyer advances the concept of "joint accountability," where the entire school staff is held accountable to some higher authority for its own operations, while the higher authorities are, in turn, held accountable for supplying appropriate information and facilities that each school staff requires to operate effectively. He divides his model into four variables: (a) input (characteristics of the students), (b) educational process (activities in the school organized to bring about desirable changes), (c) surrounding conditions (school, home, and community), and (d) output (characteristics of

students as they emerge from a particular phase of their schooling).

These four variables contain several subvariables and are interrelated and measured to form a School Effectiveness Index (SEI) by which to judge whether or not the staff is producing hoped-for changes. With this profile, Dyer claims, a school can discern in which areas of student progress it is more or less effective compared to similar schools.

The McDonald-Forehand model also envisions each school as a unit of analysis for comparing student progress and includes provisions for community input that corresponds with the school's present system of community control.

The authors present a seven-stage model: (a) identifying meaningful student performance, (b) identifying achievement goals and discrepancies in achievement, (c) diagnosing causes of achievement and nonachievement, (d) obtaining information about likely causes of discrepancies in achievement, (e) developing a plan for corrective action, (f) implementing the plan, and (g) evaluating the plan. The model is cyclical and yields an ongoing Student Development Index (SDI) for schools to use and make comparisons.

Although there are several specific problems with both models, on a general level both are using pre- and post-test student scores and controlling for the differences in pretest scores to determine which schools are more effective. This approach has many inherent pitfalls, as the test specialists know all too well.

In comparing schools, it seems reasonable to adjust for student-teacher-community characteristics. But exactly what characteristics are controlled and what weights are to be applied to each characteristic is highly subjective. How one controls or considers the impact of racial tensions or political factors of the schools and community on performance is a difficult problem as yet unresolved. Controlling for teacher turnover and pupil turnover, especially in inner-city schools, is a problem of concern in any accountability model. Taking corrective action following evaluation can easily lead to conflict and confrontation between the teachers and community.

Advocates of accountability usually subscribe to the environmental theory of intellectual development. Good. But accountability advocates either have not done their homework or ignore the fact that most environmentalists subscribe to Benjamin Bloom's series of longitudinal studies[17] as the most important piece of research in this area.

On the basis of his research, Bloom points out that 50 percent of the child's general intelligence is developed by age four, another 30 percent by the age of eight, and the remaining 20 percent by age 17. He estimates that about one-third of general learning growth as based on achievement indices takes place between birth and age six; that 17 percent of this growth takes place between the ages of four and six; and that still another 17 percent of growth takes place between ages six and nine. Thus, the most important growing period for intellectual development and academic learning is before school age.

It appears, then, that educators are working against overwhelming odds to effect changes with students who show deficits in learning, since much of their potential has already been developed before they come to school. Also, the change problems become increasingly difficult as we progress through the grades and attempt to hold teachers and administrators accountable for older students. Thus, a ninth grade class with a two year average deficit in reading provides a more difficult change problem than a sixth grade class with a two year deficit. Similarly, two seventh grade classes with the same reading average but with different ranges in test scores are not evenly equated, although one might assume so since the averages are the same. The class with the wider range presents a more difficult change problem.[18] With extreme cases, we would need a powerful environment to effect positive changes.

In addition to the environmental factors impacting on learning and, in turn, compounding the problem of assessing student achievement, the test instruments

used to measure achievement are subject to question.

Most standardized achievement and reading tests given to students contain about 30 to 50 questions. The students who score low on the tests obviously have answered few questions correctly. If a student answered only 10 questions correctly on the initial test, being able to answer an extra five questions on the post-test is easier for him (because of chance variation) than for someone who had almost all the items correct on the first test. The relative gain of a student whose score rose from 10 to 15 (50 percent) would be very much higher than that of a student whose score rose from 20 to 25 (25 percent).

In this connection, Ralph Tyler[19] points out that when the slow or less able student is pre- and post-tested, changes in his standardized test scores may largely be due to chance variations, since both scores are based on very small samples of knowledge, abilities, or skills.

As a further problem in correlating pre- and post-test scores, Stephen Klein[20] and Robert Stake[21] point out the need to take into consideration "regression" effects, where the low scores tend to increase and the high scores tend to decrease on second testing. Post-test scores, relative to their corresponding pretest scores, tend to change in the direction of the mean. Regression effects make the low-achieving students look better the next time around.

Robert Soar[22] calls our attention to another problem. Students who initially make low scores gain little on post-tests, as do students who initially have high scores. However, students who initially test toward the middle tend to gain on the second test. One possible reason is that the change situation may not be as much a matter of testing as of learning rate. Given the regression effects and Soar's findings, if students are ability-grouped, teachers assigned one ability group rather than another will be found to be more "effective" teachers despite the fact that the pre- and post-test results may have little bearing on the teachers' effectiveness.

According to Roger Lennon[23] a raw score gain of not more than two or three points is sufficient to account for an improvement of one grade level placement, say from 9.0 to 10.0, as measured by most reading tests for the secondary level. And Robert Stake[24] reports that a range of three to eight items is sufficient to account for an improvement of one grade level placement for most of the popular batteries used in elementary schools. Indeed, test-wise students can easily guess a few items correctly on the second test. Even without coaching, this change is well within the error of measurement of an individual score.

A change in one grade level, in other words, may be a direct indicator of the probable extent of error in *any* test score, even among highly reliable measurements. Even with measures that have reliability coefficients of, say, the .90 range, which is as high a level as is reached by most commonly used batteries, the reliability of gain from pre- and post-measures comes from two fallible scores, and the error variances from them summate.

Overriding the above concerns is the problem of differential growth rates, that learning does not occur in equal units of time. Learning does not take place at a constant rate, age, or grade level; thus, the quality of instruction is not always the major factor involved. Yet we almost always assume the opposite when we interpret pre- and post-test scores.

In the Michigan Department of Education, we have developed a six-step accountability process: (a) identify goals for the schools, (b) spell out each goal in measurable terms, (c) assess where we are in relation to where we want to be, (d) analyze the programs for delivering educational services to children, (e) evaluate, and (f) recommend improvements.

—C. Phillip Kearney,
associate superintendent, Michigan Department of Education, Lansing.

We fail to recognize that some teachers may be penalized by students who are within their slow period of development, while other teachers may be at an advantage because they are working with students of the same grade level who are developing at a faster rate.

Similarly, it is possible that students in a given period of human development, slow or fast, may be ready to learn one subject more rapidly than another because different learning skills and maturation abilities are required. Randomly assigning students to teachers may reduce this problem; however, it would negate the advantages that may accrue in matching learning styles and rates with specific teaching styles.

We are further hampered by the fact that we do not have test measurements that can appraise reliable change scores over a brief period, say in nine months, from September to June. Besides the variations in the rate of learning, with short intervals of time, the increments of change are small. Put in a different way, the effect on student learning that a teacher or school has in a year is usually too small to measure with accuracy. Nevertheless, most accountability plans include pre- and post-testing at the beginning and end of the school year so as to evaluate teacher performance or school effectiveness.

Then there is the temptation of teaching to the test, given a system where jobs or money are involved with extraneous factors such as test results. In fact, we know this has already occurred in Florida's teacher accountability program and with some performance contracts. The person held accountable has a choice: teaching what students should learn *or* what they must know to pass a particular test.

What does all this mean? In simple terms, scores on pre- and post-tests vary for a number of reasons that have nothing to do with the quality of instruction or the school program but, rather, with a host of technical and human considerations. The above discussion gives only a brief sample of the problems associated with pre- and post-tests. Actually, there are hundreds of other problems related to test design and format, test conditions, reliability, and validity—all of which have resulted in the publication of several texts.

Some accountability advocates argue that *criterion-referenced* tests should be used in measuring for accountability. Their reason is that most existing standardized tests are *norm-referenced*, and norm-referenced tests are constructed to measure the status of an individual or group at a particular time in relation to a large norm group. They do not accurately measure changes in learning, nor do they contain a sufficient number of questions covering the material on which the student was working to furnish a dependable answer to the question of how much he was taught—or to serve as indicators of teacher accountability.

Criterion-referenced tests can be constructed for the competencies to be learned, and then we can include a much larger sample of appropriate answers. In theory this is true. But most of these types of tests are in the infancy stages of development and are only now being discussed in the psychometric literature. More important, the problems associated with pre- and post-testing still remain unsolved.

Test specialists are well aware of the many problems related to accountability schemes and realize that simple pre- and post-tests cannot accurately evaluate the effect of treatment. We should be careful to adopt more sophisticated measures, which would take several years to work out. But we are not heading in this direction.

Liberal groups who advocate accountability often reject test experts as caretakers of the establishment, and black educators increasingly look upon these experts with suspicion and distrust, often condemning them for being victimized by their own Anglo-western history and culture. On the other hand, the conservative community is generally looking to save money and may not be interested in paying for the research required to develop adequate tests.

You can't have testing both ways. First, accountability advocates want to use tests to validate accountability while disregarding cautions by scholars in the field; then they dismiss the test data

when this serves their ideological purpose.

There is also a concern that accountability encourages instruction toward narrowly defined behaviors that are the immediate target outcomes presumably forming the basis of assessment. If so, the things we can measure are what becomes important in instruction. Cognitive thinking of a higher order and affective objectives are often neglected because they are difficult to assess, although they may be just as important as learning how to count or read.

The accountability system using behavioral objectives as a focal point ignores the reality of human interaction: that much teaching and learning has little to do with intended goals and quantifiable outcomes. As Dennis Adams points out, the whole process of channeling learning to preconceived objectives "may very well waste the best human powers to learn" and may hamper much of what "is creative, imaginative, and innovative" in teaching and learning.[25] According to Henry Dyer, we may wind up teaching children "to pass tests at the expense of learning to hate the subject in which we test them. . . ."[26]

This does not mean that behavioral objectives have no place in education but that they should never become an all-embracing idea system which rewards or penalizes school people. When we combine behavioral objectives with teacher assessment and tie them up with jobs, the whole teaching process becomes, at best, rigid and compulsive and, at worst, politically oriented and somewhat reminiscent of the Orwellian 1984, where deviations from intended goals are treated as heretical. Under the guise of making education more scientific, we may be creating a scientific nightmare.

Since the implications of accountability for the selection of curriculum, instructional design, and evaluation practices are overwhelmingly evident, let us turn to the political implications.

Anyone who views accountability solely in terms of educational reforms is either naive or is masking his real intentions. The process of schooling is largely political and is linked to economic considerations—to jobs.

It will be a real tragedy if accountability becomes so stereotyped and conformist that those involved are afraid to experiment. School systems, schools, and teachers should certainly be left some discretion so that we do not get the kind of conformity all of us apparently detest. I'd like to think that the measure of real educators is not that they tried and failed, but that they tried.

—Charles H. Wheatley,
assistant executive secretary,
Maryland State Teachers Association, Baltimore.

When we talk about accountability, especially in large cities, we are also talking about who will make decisions about who will be held accountable and whether those in power or those vying for power will use it for their own self-interests.

Initially, accountability was a tool of the political right in response to what appeared as reckless government spending on compensatory programs, but now it is a catchword of the political left. For the critics of compensatory spending, accountability is a way of raising educational productivity, of finding out what they are getting for their money, of establishing modes of proof, and of holding down taxes. For compensatory advocates, accountability serves as a second chance to prove the value of compensatory education to the many detractors who were feeling the cost of such government spending in taxes and rising inflation.

Accountability and community control have become companion slogans in many places. Almost all the demands for community control are accompanied by demands to hold professionals accountable.[27] For many of these proponents of reform, accountability has very little to do with good teaching and administrative abilities; it is a potential weapon

One problem that arises in accountability is that the cognitive purposes of the school are, in fact or in function, taken to be all of the purposes, although everybody knows better. So you come down to the three R's for three principal reasons: They are universal; they are not too hard to measure validly; the public understands them. But nobody, I think, seriously wants to turn schools merely into skills factories.
—Arthur W. Foshay,
professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York.

that can be used by local community boards for or against specific groups or individuals—to hire, promote, or discharge.

When we talk about accountability, we are also talking about licensing procedures, what determines professional competence, and what power groups set performance standards.

When we talk about accountability, we are referring to which teachers and administrators should be hired, promoted, fired, or not employed when teaching jobs are difficult to come by. We are talking about who gets top administrative jobs that pay up to $30,000 and $40,000; in short, who runs the nation's largest school systems. Are we not, therefore, talking about power as well as professional competence?

Many educators advance the concept of accountability because they advocate change for the sake of change. According to Donald Robinson, today it seems there is "a heightened respect for change, per se, quite apart from any presumption of progress or improvements."[28]

While the serious authors of accountability models stress the need for research, experimentation, and verification for their approaches (or for any approach to accountability), this does not seem to be the trend. The general demand is to implement accountability on a mass scale, to ignore pilot testing ideas, and to worry later about the consequences.

Reformers argue for accountability as though it is guaranteed to improve education, yet they have no research evidence and they fail to point out the political and economic implications.

Given the usual discrepancies between rhetoric and reason, between promise and reality, it would be canny of accountability advocates to limit evaluation. Lack of data and concrete evidence tends to work in favor of those who advocate change and end up controlling new policies.

Without research, claims for accountability based on intuition and logic can continue to be voiced, and testimonials from the advocates of change can always be found. As long as there is no adequate research on the effects of accountability, the bite of the opponents' criticism is reduced. Moreover, they are put on the defensive: criticized for resisting change, branded as pro-establishment and as representing forces of stagnation.

As the schools proceed to implement accountability programs, questions arise that need answering. Can we accurately measure changes in learning? How do we translate generalities into specifics? How do we replace emotionalism with rationalism? Who should be held accountable, and for what? How can we safeguard teachers against scapegoating? Dare teachers and administrators state the simple truth: that the students, parents, and community are also accountable? Are we concerned with power or with effective instructional systems? Before we march madly in many directions singing education's latest popular tune, let us consider where we should go from here.

Unless and until we answer most of these questions satisfactorily, accountability may never have a chance to enhance the teaching profession. Too quick adoption of the concept, coupled with failure to work out inherent problems, may lead to quackery and chaos and, even worse, to punishment of educators by placing on them total blame for poor student performance.

Accountability, like so many other educational

ideas, can be used by individuals who wish to attack and divide the educational system, and it can be used to advance the interests of self-serving groups. On the other hand, at least in theory, it can be used by educators to think more clearly about the goals of reform and methods for achieving these goals.

It must be understood that the schools, especially the public schools, have been increasingly burdened with the tasks and responsibilities that other social institutions no longer do very well or do not care to do. The schools have been asked to develop the child's human potential regardless of his background or ability, to educate him as well as possible, to make him into a healthy and responsible citizen. As Frank Jennings pointed out, society, having directed to the schools the responsibility of educating the child, now envisions school people "as ideal agents to be made accountable to the rest of society for the quality and quantity of educational results."[29]

It must be constantly reemphasized that distinguishing the multiple causes affecting student learning is nearly impossible and that attributing all of a child's success or failure in school to his teacher or principal is certainly wrong and unfair. Similarly, there is need to point out again that family characteristics have the greatest influence on most student learning. No one, including teachers and school administrators, should be held accountable for something he has little control over. The most that school people can be reasonably held responsible for is continually trying to better the quality of education for all children in all schools, within the limits imposed by the abilities of the child and conditions of the school.

Few people would disagree with the theory of accountability. Teachers do not fear evaluation; in fact, most of them welcome it and prefer that supervisors observe, evaluate, and make recommendations in a constructive manner. What they object to is that accountability systems carry with them a presumption of guilt and negative reasons for implementation. In addition, many of the systems border on narrow and misguided practices and seem to be influenced by hidden agendas.

But accountability is here to stay, at least for the foreseeable future. With this in mind, we present a set of questions to help safeguard professional integrity.

Does the proposed accountability plan:

1. Impose moderating restraints and regulating activities to prevent scapegoating of educators?
2. Define the relationships between lay people and educators?
3. Provide for the involvement of teachers and school administrators in all stages of development and coordination of the plan?
4. Reflect the school district's philosophy of education?
5. Call for a careful pilot testing period prior to mass-scale implementation?
6. Allow for professional evaluation and self-evaluation?
7. Provide comparative data with similar schools for self-study and improvement?
8. Contain grievance and appeal procedures with adequate professional representation in cases where teachers and administrators are evaluated in terms of student performance?
9. Include equal employment opportunity for all educational personnel?
10. Protect personnel against intimidation from local groups and prevent favoritism toward one group?
11. Guard against the possible danger of pitting human beings against each other, whether this involves students against students or teachers against teachers?
12. Have the support of state agencies in providing guides or data for professionals and lay people alike about test problems and errors of measurement scores?
13. Provide adequate time intervals between pre- and post-testing?
14. Take into consideration the multiplicity of variables associated with learning?
15. Include learning outcomes beyond narrowly defined behavioral objectives?

Ironically, the concept of accountability is

spreading across the country. This is happening regardless of the fact that there are several problems inherent in the models, the least of which is a lack of understanding that different models of accountability make different sets of demands on different groups.

In addition, accountability is plagued by difficulties with measuring learning, with lack of evidence that it benefits students, and with few plans for formally evaluating these models on a pilot basis before plunging ahead. Mass implementation without verifications is absurd, and it reflects left and right ideology and educational bandwagonism.

What we need is a common language and some comparisons that permit self-examination and openness on both sides of the philosophical and political dividing lines. We need to put away our political and economic motives, to talk to one another as persons concerned for the welfare of all students. We need to advocate the importance of research, not rhetoric. We must provide a forum that permits us to understand fully such issues as the concept of accountability before advocating any one idea as a certain cure-all. □

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Welcome Back

This is the week when, all across the land, millions of happy faces and shining eyes are turned toward school. They belong to mothers.

—Bill Gold in the *Washington Post.*

By **JOHN E. MOTZKUS**
Director of Student Activities, Anaheim (California) High School.

□ **To: Faculty Members**
From: Mr. B. Leaguered, Principal
Concerning: Preschool Teacher Workshops

Now that September is upon us, I want to welcome each staff member back to another challenging school year.

The district has again arranged a day of workshops to update and inspire you. There will be eight sessions of which you should attend at least five. Following is a summary of each of the sessions to help in your selection:

• *English Mini-Courses.* Miss Dela Tanti, district coordinator, English and homemaking. Miss Tanti will describe the success of her English mini-course pilot program. The courses are two weeks long with a menu of over 100 entrées from which students may sample. They may whet their appetites on science fiction, Tarzan, Zane Grey, or dozens of other delicacies. If students find something good, they can come back for larger helpings.

Refreshments will be served.

• *Fundamentals of English.* Mr. Chipps, chairman, District English Department. Mr. Chipps will review two educational principles of Alfred North Whitehead: (a) Do not teach too many subjects and (b) What you teach, teach thoroughly. He will illuminate these points by quotations from Robert Maynard Hutchins, Aristotle, Horace, and the Old Testament. During his practicum, Mr. Chipps will again review his now famous lesson plan on *Silas Marner.* Discussion of a positive nature will be permitted. No smoking allowed.

• *The Success School.* Dr. Cureall, consultant, the Dr. Cureall Success Institute. Dr. Cureall will explain how failure can be forever banished from public education by abolishing letter grades, conducting class meetings, eliminating tracking, involving students in decision making, buying his book, and enrolling in the Success Institute. Dr. Cureall, who modestly admits to having made *the* major breakthrough in twentieth century education, will prove the value of his system by way of many personal anecdotes and references to his book. Prerequisite: a college grade point average of 3.0.

• *Capitalist Classroom.* Henry Getmore, consultant, Capitalist Classroom Institute. Since human nature is essentially competitive and acquisitive, schools should reward good performance with cash or points with which students may purchase recreation or treats. The fun comes when the kids try to spend their points! Caveat emptor!

Mr. Getmore's materials (copyright pending) will be on sale with a 20 percent discount for those attending his workshop. Top educational values!

• *Behavioral Objectives.* Dr. Statem, State College, Department of Education. Dr. Statem is with us again to explain that if teachers precisely state their objectives in performance language, 90 percent of our educational problems will be solved within a three-year period to the extent that 90 percent of the parents and 85 percent of the teachers will react favorably to public education on a carefully constructed question-

naire. This year, however, Dr. Statem will not entertain questions from the floor.

• *Philosophy of Education.* Stanley Shrubb, district supervisor, Grounds and Maintenance. This workshop is the result of teacher requests for more in-depth study of basic educational philosophy. Mr. Shrubb will review the epistemological and axiological foundations of the district philosophy of education as adopted by the board of education and printed in your teacher's handbook. "Teachers should teach the benefits of the free enterprise system, respect for law and order, and a salable skill to each student. There should be free bus service for all pupils living more than one mile from school." Bring your thinking caps for this one!

• *A Time for Change.* Dr. Future, editor, *Verity Magazine.* We may be in for a shock from Dr. Future. Our horse-and-buggy system is inadequate for the present, let alone the future. We must throw out the present curriculum, bell schedules, letter grades, grade levels, traditional buildings, traditional teacher-student relationships, textbooks, and so on. His lecture will include evidence that the lecture method itself is also outmoded.

• *School and Community.* Pops McVaney, district athletic director. Pops will interpret what alumni remember and value in their school experience. The character-building struggle on the gridiron, the tough old teachers who really cared, the school traditions, and the six-period day are all on his list. Pops will sprinkle his remarks with amusing and touching stories of campus high jinks by his "boys," now the city fathers. Those attending will be required to sing Central High's alma mater.

These workshops will help start off the year with a bang. After participation, we will be ready to do the following: (a) Create an atmosphere where kids feel free and responsible. But remember we are here to enforce the rules with a firm hand. (b) Hook the kids on extracurricular activities. But do not let the tail wag the dog. (c) Discuss relevant and controversial issues openly and freely. But be very careful of what you say about religion, evolution, communism, politics, ecology, women's lib, drugs, abortion, dating, family relations, sex, and human values.

You can handle it.

Welcome back. □

BIBLICAL BONERS

□ *The following boners—gleaned by Mr. Warshaw in completion tests—are just a tiny sample of the thousands and thousands that students produce each school year. The editors invite teachers to submit some of their pupils' choicest ones for possible publication in* Today's Education. *Send contributions to* Today's Education, *1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

Cain said, "Am I my brother's *son*?"

Sodom and Gomorrah were *lovers.*

The Israelites put the *leg* of lamb on their doorposts.

For food in the wilderness God sent to the Israelites *matzah.*

"Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in *vein.*"

The secret of Samson's strength was in his *coat of many colors.*

Ruth *grazed* in the fields of Boaz after the reapers were done.

Boaz fulfilled Ruth's claim of *adultery* by marrying her.

"Give therefore thy servant an understanding *woman.*"

Jezebel was Ahab's *donkey.*

Elijah *"picked up* his loins" and ran.

"Thou hast made him a little lower than the *ants.*"

"They pierced my hands and my *ears.*"

"The wicked . . . flourishing like a green bay *packer.*"

"Nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn *nothing* anymore."

"His name shall be called . . . the *justice* of Peace."

The three Jews in the furnace were *Shamrock,* Meshach, and Abednego.

"The voice of one crying in the *manger.*"

"It has been said, 'An eye for an eye, and a *toot* for a tooth.' "

"He that loseth his *mind* for my sake shall find it."

"A prophet is not without honor save in his own *mind.*"

"Suffer the little *pain* to come unto me."

Lazarus died and was carried by angels to Abraham's *womb.*

"Hail . . . the Lord is with thee; blessed art thou among *sinners.*"

"The truth shall make you *shudder.*"

"The truth shall make you *poor.*"

Saul saw the light and was converted on the road to *Catholicism.* □

—Compiled by **Thayer S. Warshaw,** *English teacher, Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.*

Toward a MULTICULTURAL Society

By **RENÉ CÁRDENAS**
Executive Director, and
LILY WONG FILLMORE
Associate in Charge of Curriculum, Bilingual Children's Television.

□ **We Americans have always been** ambivalent about our multicultural, immigrant origins. On the one hand, we acknowledge with pride that we are the unique hybrid of many ethnic and linguistic stocks. On the other hand, we have traditionally felt embarrassment about these mixed roots and have tried to hide their traces.

Migration to this country, until the last half of the nineteenth century, was principally from the British Isles. By the time migration from other parts of Europe began, the American cultural image was cast, and the language and traditions of the Anglo-Saxon, after whom this image was modeled, were firmly imprinted on the society. So well-established was this image that subsequent newcomers had to adopt it fully if they were to become a part of the society.

Most immigrant groups have managed to wipe out evidence of "foreignness" within a generation or two, and to the extent that a group is able to do this well, it is rewarded with economic and social mobility in the society.

Although nearly every immigrant group eventually makes the required adjustments, not all these groups are permitted by society to assimilate to an equal degree.[1]

Immigration continues and provides our society with a constant source of cultural and ethnic richness. What happens to this richness will depend largely on the ability of our society to learn to accommodate itself, even as the newcomers must do, in order to benefit from that richness.

Nearly every immigrant group, upon arrival in the United States, has established some sort of ethnic community. Each has tended to settle in specific areas of the country: the Scandinavians, in the Midwest; the Irish, Ukrainians, Poles, and Germans, in the East and Midwest; the Italians, Jews, and Puerto Ricans in the New York area; the Chinese and Japanese, in California; and the Mexicans, in the Southwest.

The earlier groups tended to move westward, the later crowded into urban slums along the eastern seaboard. The tendency for an immigrant group to settle into a specific area of the country was inevitable, since newly arriving families generally settled near friends and relatives from the old country.

Once a substantial number of immigrants resided in an area, they established businesses and institutions to provide needed goods and services and formed associations to promote the group's welfare.

These ethnic communities, most of which were located in the slum areas of large cities, such as Boston and New York, were more like transplanted communities from the old country than American communities. As such, they helped to ease the adjustment of the group to the new society.

Since the adjustment was difficult for nearly every group at first, it is little wonder that the ethnic enclaves became refuges, islands within larger communities which afforded the immigrant both protection and social life. Here, the immigrant group established the institutions and organizations of the old country.

They started ethnic churches that used their native language.[2] Ethnic language newspapers provided them

The American school was often the first real contact between an immigrant family and the new society.

with information.[3] Social and political organizations promoting the welfare and interest of the community flourished.[4]

Guilds provided mutual support for tradesmen. Some ethnic communities, such as the Chinese in San Francisco, who were barred from legal protection under American laws, even set up their own courts to arbitrate in disputes, superintend the writing of contracts, and adjudicate legal disputes.[5]

In addition, many communities organized and ran their own schools in an effort to maintain use of the mother tongue and to preserve the group's culture into the next generation.[6]

Such language and cultural maintenance efforts by the immigrant communities were widespread and necessary but they nevertheless created a general dilemma for the individuals who belonged to these groups.

On the one hand, the group needed to hang onto the old and familiar culture in order to survive in the hostile new environment. At the same time, each individual recognized that social and economic mobility was possible only if he gave up the old ways and assimilated into the new society.[7]

For most immigrants, there was little chance of assimilating to an extent that would substantially affect their economic circumstances within their generation. Better jobs generally require not only education, but English language skills and a working knowledge of the American social system as well. Social mobility and participation in the larger society were tied to economic mobility, and all depended on one's ability to make it through the educational system of the society,

For the children of immigrants, however, the picture was different. The American school was often the first real contact between an immigrant family and the new society. The immigrant's children often attended both the ethnic schools sponsored by the community and the American schools, but it was the experience in the latter that was ultimately the more important, for here the process of assimilation took place and here ethnicity died.

For most immigrant children, the experience in the American classroom was a revelation. Here, the child learned not only to speak the language of the society and to read and write it, but also what being an American was all about.

From his schoolmates, his teachers, his textbooks, and all his school-related experiences, he derived a notion of what Americans should look like. He discovered what they wore, how they talked, what they ate and how they ate it, what they liked and did not like, what they believed in, what things they held dear, where they went, and what they enjoyed doing.

And this American cultural image that the immigrant's child received at school was everywhere reinforced: in movies, newspapers, magazines, and, of late, on television as well. The image, of course, was the one established early in our history: that of America's first settler, the Anglo-Saxon.

At the same time, the immigrant's child learned that he and his family did not fit the American cultural image well. They talked a different language, lived a different life, ate a different food, and, often, looked depressingly different.

Furthermore, the child discovered that these differences mattered a lot to his peers and, sometimes, even to his teachers. He was often rejected because he was different and, at times, cruelly punished as well—both for being what he was and for not being what he wasn't.

In addition, the educational programs in those American classrooms were planned, almost inflexibly, for the child who fitted that American ideal. Unless the child shared the experiences, language, values, and orientation of that one model of the American, these educational programs did not afford him equal opportunity for success.

It is little wonder that these immigrant children were so highly motivated to change. The first big change for most was to abandon the mother tongue; not an easy thing to do, particularly if that happens to be the only language one's parents speak. This never happened overnight, of course; the steps were gradual, but effective.

In any event, the experience of most groups has been that with the third generation, the ethnic language is simply a fond memory. Fishman, in his studies of language loyalty among the various immigrant groups

In this country, immigration continues and provides our society with a constant source of cultural and ethnic richness.

in the United States, indicates that most immigrant languages seem to die out between the first and second generation. For nearly every ethnic language, the children of foreign-born parents (second generation) claim the same mother tongue as their parents, but only a very small number of their children (third generation) make such a claim.[8]

The loss of the ethnic language generally signaled the loss of many other aspects of the immigrant culture as well. In fact, whatever could readily be identified as different was likely to be rejected by the children of the immigrants. For a few second generation persons, rejecting the parents' culture included rejection of the parents as well.

And so many members of most ethnic minorities in this country have managed to disappear into the larger society. But not all minorities managed with equal success. Some have remained culturally and socially isolated in the ghettos where they first settled, locked in the low economic and social status that characterized the early period of all immigrant groups in this country.

Among these minorities are the Blacks, despite the fact that they have been in the society almost since its inception; the Native Americans, who were here in the first place; and the Latinos, some of whom have been in the society for generations and some of whom are relative newcomers. These groups share one characteristic: They are physically different from the majority group.

Furthermore, the cultures of each of these groups differ considerably from American norms in enough major aspects to have made acculturation difficult. And because they are unable to assimilate, each group has persisted in maintaining close group ties; the ethnic culture; and, in the case of the Latinos, the ethnic language as well—a situation that further segregates them from the larger society.[9]

Trapped in poverty, prevented from economic mobility by low educational achievement, and prevented from getting better educations for a multitude of reasons, these groups pose a major problem for the society and, in particular, for educators.

Thus, beginning in the early 1960's, compensatory programs were launched that sought to remediate poor children's deficiency from the crib through high school. Though these efforts were generally well funded and carefully planned, the results, by and large, were disappointing.

The problem, it seems, was that these programs, as far as the children who were having trouble assimilating were concerned, were misguided. They required the youngsters to do all the changing, which was precisely what they had not been able to do before.

Faced with the continuing frustration of defeat, members of a number of ethnic minorities have sought to find their own solutions. Among the more interesting attempts have been "ethnic studies" programs that have sprung up in some areas. Because educational programs have traditionally ignored the role of minorities in the society, these programs have sought to right the wrong through such courses of study as Black History, Chicano Literature, Asians in the United States, and so forth.

These courses, however, often present their subjects not in proper context but from the narrow point of view of the minority group only. As such, they are no more than another set of blinders.

The Bilingual Education Act (ESEA, Title VII), passed in 1967, represents a different kind of answer to the problem. In recognition of the special needs of children from environments in which the dominant language is other than English, this Act provides for programs in which the home languages and cultures of the children are brought into the classroom as an integral part of the school program. The child needs to learn the language and culture of the school, but the school needs to learn about and appreciate the language and culture of the child as well.

In the four years that Title VII has actually been in operation, a number of programs have been funded, involving a wide variety of languages; among them, Cantonese, Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Navaho.

Not all of the programs have been equal in their commitment to the notion of bilingualism, however. In many places, the programs turned out to be little more than compensatory programs in disguise. Although these programs used the children's home

language in school, it was clearly to facilitate the learning of English.

In other places, the intention was to teach the child basic skills in the home language, but only until he had managed to learn English, at which time all learning would proceed in that language.

Still other programs aimed at bilingualism for all the children and sought to give them an early opportunity to know at least one culture other than their own.

This latter type of program is a sign of a hopeful turnabout just beginning in education. The American school at last is making room for ethnicity. True, foreign language programs have been around before, but these were different in spirit from the new bilingual, multicultural approach.

The foreign language programs attempted to teach the student simply to speak the new language and not necessarily to take part in the life of the culture. Bilingual education programs involve teaching subject matter in the new language as well. Furthermore, there is also an attempt to take the traditional cultural blinders off the school and to give all the children a familiarity with the culture of the ethnic minority in their midst.

This, according to some critics of bilingual education, amounts to turning "down the heat on the melting pot" with the result that "there are going to be some sad lumps that just keep going around and around—and around," as Jenkin Lloyd Jones wrote some months ago in the *Washington Evening Star-News*.[10]

These critics ask: Why can't such groups as the Latinos assimilate as have immigrant groups before them? In our opinion, the question that really should be asked is: Why should they? Why can't the society itself make some accommodations? The bilingual programs represent education's first major accommodation to the ethnic minorities in this country.

Of all these programs, the most ambitious is probably Bilingual Children's Television, recently funded by the U.S. Office of Education (under the Emergency School Aid Act) and by private foundations.

Scheduled for viewing on public television in January 1974, the new series of 130 half-hour shows will present the nation's three-to-eight-year-old children with a daily educational experience in English and Spanish.

Its aims are multifaceted: Educationally, it aims to help young children develop cognitive and social strategies for dealing with their experiences. Linguistically, it hopes to develop first language skills and offer, as well, an opportunity to learn a second language. Culturally, Bilingual Children's Television hopes to provide the children with educational experiences from the point of view of many cultures so they may discover the common bonds existing between all people.

To accomplish the last aim is to deepen the child's appreciation of his own culture and to help him begin the process of learning to see other cultures as complementary rather than contradictory ways of organizing his social world. In a multicultural society, all children need to learn early that cultural differences involve alternative ways of looking at and doing things; that the differences are not absolute or mutually exclusive.

Furthermore, children need to learn that acquiring a new culture does not have to mean giving up old ways, but rather that the new can be accommodated and integrated with the old, creating a new, unique whole.

One of the aims of the television series is to familiarize the children not only with American cultural patterns in the context of diverse Latino cultures, but also with the many other cultures of which the American society is composed. The aim is to help the children in this country see the commonalities existing between various groups and recognize and appreciate the differences.

Endorsement of the notion of multicultural education has been impressive. In November 1972, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education adopted a statement on multicultural education that reads in part:

"To endorse cultural pluralism is to endorse the principle that there is no one model American. To endorse cultural pluralism is to understand and appreciate the differences that exist among the nation's citizens. It is to see these differences as a positive force in the continuing development of a society which professes a wholesome respect for the intrinsic worth of every individual. . . . Educational institutions play a major role in shaping the attitudes and beliefs of the nation's youth. These institutions bear the heavy task of preparing each generation to assume the rights and responsibilities of adult life. In helping the transition to a society that values cultural pluralism, educational institutions must provide leadership for the development of individual commitment to a social system where individual worth and dignity are fundamental tenets. . . .".[11]

Last April, the Executive Committee of the National Education Association voted an endorsement for Bilingual Children's Television, an act

The child needs to learn the language and culture of the school, but the school needs to learn about and appreciate the language and culture of the child as well.

that demonstrates both the Committee's approval and support of the new effort and its commitment to the proposition that multiculturalism is "a very splendid state of being," as Donald E. Morrison, former NEA President, expressed it in another context.[12]

In a statement announcing the Executive Committee's endorsement of Bilingual Children's Television, then NEA President Catharine Barrett (1972-73) said: "The NEA recognizes the necessity of providing an adequate medium of nourishing cultural pluralism. It will continue to support and promote bilingualism and cultural diversity in American public education."

Last summer, the NEA Representative Assembly approved the establishment of a "professional Multi-Cultural, Multi-Racial Task Force on Bilingual/Bicultural Education" and the extension for a second year of the Asian American Task Force.

If efforts such as Bilingual Children's Television succeed, they may well lead the way to a new stage in the social development of this society, a linguistic and multicultural renaissance, perhaps. Such a renaissance might mean not only the maintenance of the cultural and linguistic diversity that has managed to survive the forces of assimilation so far but also the revival of some of those languages and cultures which have been abandoned in the past by the ethnic groups that have already disappeared into the American society. Ethnicity, once considered a liability, might come to be accepted as an asset, even in America. □

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[10]Jenkin Lloyd Jones, "Is the Melting Pot Passe?" *Washington Evening Star-News*, April 7, 1973.

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Excellence in Teacher Education

□ **Awarded a multi-year grant in** 1970 by the U.S. Office of Education, Project Change at the State University College at Cortland, New York, was charged first with the task of developing from scratch a new kind of teacher education program at the master's level for teachers of three-to-nine-year-old children. The second job was to go where many of Cortland's graduates are—regional schools—to find people who would help us develop a program that would serve the needs of teachers and schools interested in striking out in new directions.

Somewhere along the way, we decided that the same principles that hold for children's learning and development also hold true for teachers' learning and development.

If development is basically the same process for children and adults, we reasoned that teachers, like children, should be active learners rather than passive—pooling their resources rather than competing; experimenting and creating; making choices; taking a good deal of responsibility for their own learning.

We also came to believe that teachers, like children, are most likely to succeed if they have a strong sense of personal control over their environment—if they feel that they can make an impact on their environment, that they have within themselves the resources for success. It seemed clear, therefore, that increasing the teacher's sense of personal control should be a basic objective of teacher education.

This meant creating the conditions under which teachers develop a different view of themselves and their profession, a feeling, as one person in our program headily expressed it, that "I, as a teacher, can try almost anything. I don't have to sit back and take anyone's word for anything."

Putting these principles into practice at Cortland takes the form of having our Project Change students (98 percent of whom are women) direct a good deal of their own learning. There is a structural framework —a five-week Summer Institute in Open Education and a spate of courses, such as Programs and Theories in Early Childhood Education and Classroom Evaluation—but within this framework teachers are free to choose from a wide range of "knowledge and behavioral competencies" those which best fit their own interests and needs.

In the course, Coping with Individual Differences, for example, a student first chooses the content areas (e.g., self-concept and psychomotor development) in which to do competency projects. She then selects a particular problem within each of those areas (e.g., a child she teaches is a sociometric isolate) and proceeds to diagnose the problem, design a strategy for coping with it, implement the strategy with the child, and evaluate its effectiveness. This comprises a "behavioral competency" project.

As a corresponding "knowledge competency" project, the teacher might choose to prepare an annotated bibliography relevant to her content area that would be useful to other teachers or conduct a workshop in her behavioral competency for members of the class.

In its two years of operation, the program has taken on a strong child-development orientation, centered on the work of Piaget and its implications for teaching.

The part of the program that does the most to develop teachers as

FALL

◀ *In the Ball State Program, even freshmen get a taste of working in the public schools.*

leaders of change in their schools is a course in Teacher Strategies for Change.

Teachers in the course learn how to effect change. They develop hard skills and strategies in diagnosis, communication, gathering resources, organizing a support group, gaining favorable publicity, and taking action. Change projects have ranged from writing a proposal (later funded) for a new multi-age program to creating an adventure playground.

When asked the question, What have you gained from the Strategies course? one student replied: "Skills in working with other people, a much better understanding of the problems and processes of change, greater patience, and confidence in my own ability to bring about change. I gained much courage."

This fall, a staff member will begin teaching a year-long course based in a local school. Many of the students enrolled will be teachers in that school, and their purpose in the course will be to develop an integrated approach to reading and the language arts that they will put into practice in their own classrooms.

A critical phase of the program is providing support for teachers in their classroom both during and after their experience at the College. The Project's full-time follow-through coordinator functions as an itinerant resource person, crisscrossing the nine-county region served by the program and helping teachers to create a climate for change in their schools.

Another basic strength of the program, we think, has been its expectation that students will share the responsibility for developing a good teacher education program. The result is honest feedback, a flow of concrete suggestions for improvement, and an atmosphere of equality and mutual respect.

The program has deepened our regard for the value of high expectations. One third-grade teacher, flushed with triumph after persuading her board of education of the virtues of Project Change, wrote, "Presenting at a board meeting is admittedly a fearful experience, but exhilarating, too! I came away feeling dauntless and believing more strongly than ever that we can all do so much more than we think we can."

Another Project teacher, a nursery school director, says simply, "I have discovered talents I never knew I had." Once "terrified" of public speaking, she now does 30 workshops a year and is a part-time early childhood instructor at Cortland and at Cornell University.

Bent on converting the unbelievers, Project staff and teachers do workshops in the region year-round. They cap the effort at the end of each year with a marathon three-day conference on open education, jointly sponsored by the College's Campus School and the Education Department and attended by hundreds of teachers and teacher educators. Project Change also disseminates—both regionally and nationally—a "Mini-Book-a-Month" packed with practical classroom ideas contributed by Project teachers.

Evaluating the Project's person-centered approach to performance-based teacher education has included a comparative study of the openness of Project graduates' classroom teaching style vs. that of teachers judged exemplary by their principals but not exposed to Cortland's early childhood program. The results have shown significant differences favoring the Project Change graduates.

With the wind of this year's AACTE Distinguished Achievement Award at its back, Project Change rides into the sunset of federal funding confident that the day will dawn on a permanent Center for Early Childhood Education at Cortland. Supported from the outset by the College's administration, the Project envisions an autonomous, free-wheeling enterprise involved in follow-through with the expanding network of Project schools, continuing open education research, development of innovative teacher resource centers in the region, and early childhood programs at the graduate and undergraduate levels—the latter just now beginning.

—**Thomas Lickona,** *director, Project Change, State University of New York College at Cortland.*

□ **"Experimental Program in the** Preparation of Elementary School Teachers" (EXEL) at Ball State University in Muncie, Indiana, is an effort to break loose from "cookbook styles of teaching."

Beginning with freshmen who think they want to become teachers and continuing through the senior year, increasing amounts of college work are done in the public schools of Muncie or, for some, in British classrooms in England. This practice enables EXEL students to discover early whether or not teaching is for them.

Schoolteachers who volunteer to accept EXEL students are enthusiastic about having a part in the selec-

tion and retention process of future members of their profession. As one of these teachers puts it, "It's great getting the students into a classroom before they waste three or four years —before they discover, during the usual senior year student teaching stint, that they don't like teaching."

In EXEL, students are self-selected. They also may "select out" at the end of any quarter or at the end of the school year. The attrition rate so far has been comparable to that of the general student population on the Ball State campus. The biggest drop in enrollment comes during the freshman year; the smallest, at the end of the junior year. Most of the students who "select out" switch entirely from the teacher preparation curriculum to another that better suits their needs and talents, according to the EXEL director.

In the autumn quarter of the freshman year, students take all their college work on campus. During the winter and spring quarters, however, they spend a two-hour period each week in public school classrooms and have a weekly two-hour seminar on campus in addition to other general studies courses.

This schedule is continued through two quarters of the sophomore year, during which time each student is assigned to three different schools in order to give experience in varied sociocultural settings.

In the junior year, participation is combined with methods courses. Again, students get a variety of school assignments, including the option of going to Great Britain for the autumn quarter.

The students who go to England get an introduction to British society, culture, and education at the University of Keele. Then, for five weeks they live with British families and work full time as student teachers in primary schools in Staffordshire and surrounding areas.

During their first two years of teaching, former EXEL students will be observed to determine whether measurable differences can be identified between their performance and that of graduates of the regular Ball State elementary education programs.

EXEL is the brainchild of its director and an ad hoc committee of eight other faculty members and three students. Planning began in 1968, and the first students were recruited in 1970.

It is possible that by the end of the six-year experiment in 1977, there will be little left which closely resembles the "regular" method of teacher preparation as it was in 1970 at Ball State.

—**Dorothea Bump,** *writer, Public Information Services, Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana.*

□ **Interns form the core of the** Southern Colorado State College/School District 60 Teacher Corps program in Pueblo, Colorado. Possibly the largest Teacher Corps program in the United States with 48 teaching interns (73 percent of whom have Spanish surnames), the SCSC program is directed toward five elementary schools in low-income neighborhoods.

National Teacher Corps, Washington, DC, designated the SCSC project as "exemplary" and provided additional federal funds to develop education and communications.

Field-based education is the key to the intern program. During their junior and senior years, interns split their day between attending college classes and assisting a cooperating teacher in an elementary school classroom. Individualized courses of study in teacher education are selected from 80 modules—compact units of study tied directly to identified competencies which then are developed and demonstrated in a field setting.

Interns complete modules somewhat independently with supervision and interaction with appropriate persons, who may be cooperating teachers, community coordinators or representatives, team leaders, or professors. In contrast to the traditional classroom setting, all field-based modules require competencies. Thus, interns develop skills and training in a teaching environment for a more relevant learning experience.

The cross-cultural component, initiated three years ago, was, so far as we know, the first of its kind in the nation. Interns are required to live in their school's community, and this experience, supplemented by their flexible, modularized instruction, gives them an opportunity to learn the language and life-style of their barrio. Their culturally based education explores historical and cultural patterns of the Mexican American to help build an understanding of individual cultures in the classroom. Interns develop skills in bilingual teaching, such as teaching English as a second language and teaching the Spanish language.

Community interaction with educators is the thrust of the community-based component. Each of the five elementary schools has two or more community representatives hired to help close the

gap between the school and the neighborhood. Community "reps" work with their neighborhoods, interns, teachers, and teacher aides to assist the school in becoming aware of the needs of that school's community and to help community members solve school-home problems. The component strives to increase community involvement in the educational process by encouraging community decision making in addition to community presence in the school system.

The project recently embraced the portal school concept. Two of the five elementary schools were selected as "portal" schools, with the remaining designated as "satellites." Resources for experimental and innovative activities are concentrated in the portal schools. Portal schools have more interns, serve as centers for most of the in-service educational programs for the project, and team teach utilizing the Individually Guided Education concept. Results of portal school efforts are disseminated to satellite schools. Teachers in all five schools are assisted by interns as well as by teacher aides, most of whom are mothers of students.

Fountain Elementary School has been the target for exploring an open communications system within and between the school and the community. The Teacher Corps program requires much interaction among teachers, teacher aides, interns, school administrators, and community members for the ultimate benefit of the children. To break through ethnic, socioeconomic, and individual barriers to such interaction, a sequence of activities and workshops in communications was designed.

One such experimental activity has been "Me-Time." Every Tuesday morning, children scurry from their classes to the gym, offices, conference rooms, and other areas in and around the building, where they form groups of eight. Each group meets with a teacher, aide, intern, staff member, or community parent who facilitates a friendly, half-hour discussion of their concerns, problems, behavior, and perceptions.

The communications component strives to encourage free-flowing and accurate information in a social-emotional atmosphere conducive to an exchange of constructive feedback. Hopefully, it will increase everyone's receptivity to learning.

The interns wrote the proposal for the newest addition to the program—the volunteer component. Volunteers have been selected from all five school communities to carry on recreational, educational, and arts and crafts projects for the community which the interns have already initiated. Diverse—and mostly free-of-charge—activities include math, Spanish, and reading classes; slimnastics; lessons in swimming, Yoga, guitar, modern dance, and woodworking; and coaching of basketball teams.

Through the career ladder component, all Teacher Corps participants (interns, college and school district cooperating teachers, aides, principals and other administrators) may continue their education from earning a high school diploma to pursuing a doctoral degree. The SCSC Teacher Corps program provides instruction on a contract basis for college credit through an arrangement among six universities, colleges, and junior colleges throughout Colorado and New Mexico.

Recognizing, appreciating, and maximizing individual human potential in the educational process form the nucleus of the SCSC/School District 60 Teacher Corps project. Emphasis on human development and concerns is a common thread that runs through the intern program; the portal school concept; and the field-based, cross-cultural, community-based communications and volunteer components. Children, their parents, other community members, aides, interns, teachers, and staff personnel are encouraged to learn from each other.

—**Sally McGill,** *communications specialist assistant, Southern Colorado State College, Pueblo.*

□ **On any given day, we may find one** educational leader in conference with the board of education in Omak, Washington; one conducting a curriculum workshop for teachers in Box Elder, Montana; one addressing the PTA in Fort Washakie, Wyoming; one developing curricular prescriptions in Fort Yates, North Dakota; and one conducting an interpersonal communications workshop in Rosebud, South Dakota.

The common denominator in this varied pattern is that each leader is a trainee of Indian descent enrolled in an Indian Counselor Training Program. Most of them are working on their master's degree in guidance and counseling at one of the five institutions involved in what is known as the Center Satellite Program.

The School of Education at the University of South Dakota is the Center institution, but each

satellite has its own director and an Indian advisory board, who are jointly responsible for the program's success.

At the same time that the trainees are directing activities such as those described above, the Center director and the satellite directors may be doing one of the following: discussing certification requirements with state superintendents, highlighting course patterns with graduate deans and councils, planning system change in Indian education with school superintendents, seeking money from federal officials to fund meaningful programs, proclaiming to teachers and counselors the need for a unified system of teaching and guidance, or directing a regional workshop on problem-solving and decision-making strategies for handling the finances of the complex Center Satellite operation.

The Center serves as the central leadership unit in (a) projecting graduate level programs for Indian people training for key positions at all levels of education, (b) insuring that program participants are involved in the decision-making process, (c) dealing with programmatic matters directed toward systems modification, and (d) developing strategies which will bring about changes. The overriding thrust is to modify the systems to be responsive to the needs of Indian youth.

The satellites, located at the Universities of Wyoming, Montana, North Dakota and South Dakota, and at Eastern Washington State College, function under the Center's leadership, yet each is unique in the significant programmatic options it provides for participants.

If teaching and guidance are to improve the conditions of human life, they must be coordinated via the curriculum and the classroom where pupil personnel workers and other specialists serve as consultants to teachers rather than remain aloof from the arena where the real action is.

This requires a new type of professional who is versatile in systems change and can relate to students, teachers, administrators, parents, citizens, university administrators, and governmental personnel. It was in this context that Indian educational leaders conceived the Center Satellite Program and are now preparing Indian educators in pupil personnel services for systems modification.

Each year approximately 50 Indian trainees pursue this program, which is funded by the U.S. Office of Education and uses basic concepts in guidance and counseling to initiate systems modification. Basic courses, held at USD each summer, deal with fundamental knowledge and skills, self-growth concepts, and strategies for system change and modification.

During the academic year, trainees return to their satellite institutions. Internships and field experiences constitute the basic vehicles for working with target schools and Indian communities. Extensive travel provisions enable trainees to interact with leadership and to serve as resources for the community, the state, and the region. All activities are directed toward developing a team relationship which serves the needs of Indian youth.

An advisory board of Indian people with representation from each satellite fosters interinstitutional cooperation. Having a local advisory board for each satellite ensures a common thrust for the whole program, while each institution establishes its own program and degree requirements.

Final evaluation of the program will be in the summer of 1974 at the end of the third year of operation. However, current evaluation devices, designed by the Indian leaders, provide considerable evidence that the Center Satellite concept has made organizational modifications in target schools and universities. Graduates of the program have found ready employment and are currently working in target areas as change agents.

Despite incomplete data, we may feel reasonably sure that the Center Satellite concept and the philosophical assumptions which undergird it provide a workable alternative to current models for preparing the graduates of the program to become active decision makers for Indian education.

—**Thomas E. Moriarty,** *dean, School of Education, University of South Dakota, Vermillion.*

The programs described here were among the 13 winners of awards or certificates in the 1973 Distinguished Achievement Awards Program of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

For a recent NEA publication on the subject of teacher education innovations, see *Reform and Organizational Survival* by Ronald G. Corwin. First publication of the NEA-Ford Foundation evaluation of the Teacher Corps, with broad application to other innovative programs. 1973. 448 pages. $12. Order from John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1 Wiley Drive, Somerset, NJ 08873.

DEVELOPMENTS

Two Census Reports Cite Mobility of Americans

Movement of Americans from region to region and from state to state is statistically illustrated in two reports from the 1970 census issued recently by the Bureau of the Census. The Bureau reported that in 1970, 29.4 million native-born persons, or one out of six such Americans, were residing outside the regions in which they were born.

Analyzing the population five years and older by residence in 1965 and 1970 and by state of birth reveals recent mobility. In this group, there were 5.5 million native Americans living outside the state of birth when the 1970 census was taken and they were in still a different state in 1965. On the other hand, 111 million Americans, or 60 percent of the total, were living in the state in which they were born both in 1965 and in 1970.

The more education a person has and the higher he is on the job ladder, the less likely he is to remain in his native state. In the population, 25 and older, only 38 percent of those with five or more years of college were living in the state of birth in both 1965 and 1970. In contrast, 52 percent of those with less than an elementary school education still lived in their home state.

(For a discussion of the effects of mobility on youth, see page 22.)

Voters Defeat 53 Percent of Bond Issues in Fiscal '72

During the 1972 fiscal year, U.S. voters approved less than half of the school bond issues that went before them, according to a U.S. Office of Education report. Despite a small increase in the number endorsed at the polls (7 percent over the previous year), approximately 53 percent of the proposals were defeated. A drop occurred during the same period in the average size of issues approved—from $2.7 million to $2.5 million.

The report states that of 1,153 elections seeking to raise $3.1 billion for public elementary and secondary school construction during fiscal year 1972, 542 were approved. A year earlier only 507 of 1,086 bond issues received voter approval. In both years, however, the percentage of bonds passed averaged 47 percent, and each year about $1.4 billion was approved.

The downward trend in the number of bond sales began in 1963 and continued in 1972, reaching a total of 1,547 for the year. This figure is 8 percent lower than in the previous year and 30 percent below the 1963 figure. At the same time, the 1972 total dollar value of all public elementary and secondary school construction bonds was the second highest on record—$3.4 billion compared with $3.9 billion in fiscal 1971. These figures include those bonds issued by states and local school systems that do not require voter approval.

Supreme Court Hands Down Major Decisions on Parochiaid

In landmark decisions last summer, the U.S. Supreme Court invalidated New York and Pennsylvania statutes granting tax credits and other forms of aid to sectarian schools.

An article in the next issue of *Today's Education* will analyze these decisions.

Oregon Enacts Teacher Certification Act

This past summer, Oregon enacted a teacher certification measure which NEA hailed as a "Magna Carta" for Oregon teachers and a blueprint for other states to follow.

The legislation assures the right for a statewide professional commission to certify teachers and provides authority for the teacher-dominated commission to regulate programs leading to certification and approval of teacher training programs in colleges and universities.

The statute transfers the authority for approving certification from the State Board of Education to the Teacher Standards and Practices Commission. Legislation passed earlier this year by Oregon lawmakers gives the Commission authority for certificate revocation.

The two measures give Oregon educators more autonomy in controlling the profession than teachers in any other states have.

Teacher Strikes Increase, Says NEA Report

Teacher strikes numbered 145 this last school year, according to a preliminary report of NEA. The 1972-73 figure was a 63 percent increase over the 89 strikes a year earlier when teacher salaries were affected by the federal wage-price freeze. The all-time high was 181 teacher strikes in 1969-70.

During the last school year, more than 75,000 persons and 1.1 million man-days were involved in the strikes, according to the report by NEA Research. Only in two previous years, 1967-68 and 1968-69, did the man-days involved exceed 1 million.

Teachers May Apply for Exchange Teaching and Seminars Abroad

Grants to teach abroad or to attend summer seminars abroad are available under the Fulbright-Hays Act for the 1974-75 academic year. Elementary and secondary teachers, college instructors, and assistant professors are eligible.

U.S. citizenship, a bachelor's degree, and at least three years of successful full-time teaching are required for teaching positions. A minimum of two years teaching experience is required for summer seminars.

Deadline for application is November 1, 1973. Information and applications may be obtained by writing to Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Exchange and Training, Institute of International Studies, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, DC 20202.

Nationwide Cleanup Month Begins on September 15

To focus attention on the 1976 goal to "Clean Up America for Our 200th Birthday," a Johnny Horizon '76 Clean Up America month begins September 15.

The U.S. Department of Interior, originator of the program, has asked teachers, youngsters, business executives, government employees, and elected officials to sponsor cleanup, beautification, education, and other environmental improvement projects during this month.

For more information, write to National Coordinator, Johnny Horizon Program, Washington, DC 20240.

Wide Salary Gap Exists Between Men and Women on Higher Education Faculties

Women comprise 22.5 percent of the nation's 254,930 full-time college and university faculty on nine- and 10-month contracts and receive average

(*Continued on page* 96)

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DEVELOPMENTS

(*Continued*)

salaries almost $2,500 less than those of their male counterparts, according to data compiled by the National Center for Educational Statistics of the U.S. Office of Education. The data represent estimates for the 1972-73 school year and deal with instructional faculty in public and private institutions of higher education in all 50 states, the District of Columbia, and outlying areas.

These preliminary figures reveal that colleges and universities employ 197,633 men and 57,297 women on nine- and 10-month contracts and that the male faculty members earn an average salary of $14,352 annually, while females receive $11,865. The salary gap is widest in the nation's universities and smallest at two-year colleges.

The survey also reveals that only 9.7 percent or 5,565 of all female faculty members have achieved the rank of full professor—compared with 25.5 percent of all males.

Number of Public School Systems Continues To Drop

The number of local school systems continues to decline steadily, according to *Preliminary Statistics of State School Systems: 1969-70,* produced by the U.S. Office of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics.

In 1959-60, there were 40,500 school systems within the United States; in 1967-68, 22,000; and in 1969-70, 19,200. There has been an even more rapid reduction in the number of one-teacher schools—from 20,200 in 1959-60 to 4,100 in 1967-68 to 2,100 in 1969-70.

Alliance Formed To Promote Youth in the Arts

The Education Division of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the John F. Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts in Washington, DC, in cooperation with arts education associations, have launched a joint effort to strengthen the arts in education. Called the Alliance for Arts Education, the goals of the project are increased participation by students throughout the country in Kennedy Center activities and establishment of the Center as a national focal point for strengthening the arts in education at all levels.

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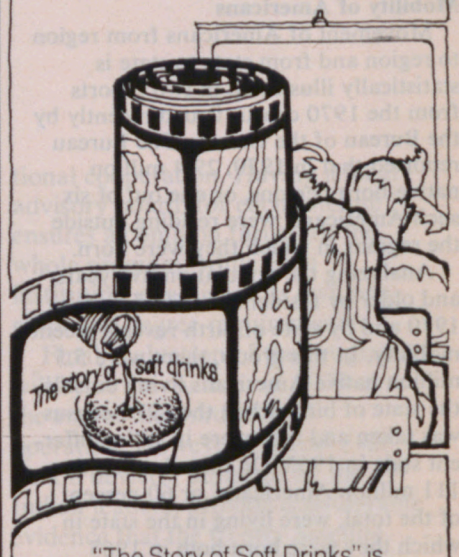

"The Story of Soft Drinks" is now available as an entertaining 15 minute slide film. The film traces the history of soft drinks, the growth of the industry, the place of soft drinks in the balanced diet and much more with bright cartoons and colorful photographs. It's accompanied by two 33 1/3 rpm record sound tracks: one for automatic, the other for manual film advance. The story is designed to interest middle elementary school level children and older.

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DEVELOPMENTS
(Continued)

excellent student music, dance, theater, and art programs. The Alliance will work to make these available to the Kennedy Center, which has agreed to set aside substantial periods of time and space to accommodate student performing groups and art exhibits.

Among the organizations involved in the Alliance are the Dance Division of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; Music Educators National Conference; and the National Art Education Association—all NEA national affiliates.

More Than 5 Million Enrolled in Correspondence Courses

Several hundred schools, both civilian and military, enroll more than 5 million Americans in correspondence courses—about two-thirds as many students as attend all U.S. colleges and universities combined.

The typical home study student is married, has a family, and finds it difficult to leave his job to attend a resident school. According to a Carnegie Corporation study, craftsmen and foremen make more extensive use of correspondence courses than any other civilian group. Professional and technical workers are the next major category of workers, followed by students working toward a high school or college diploma and to a lesser extent, managers, officials, and clerical personnel. Students in more than 1,000 high schools regularly pursue home study courses on a supervised basis.

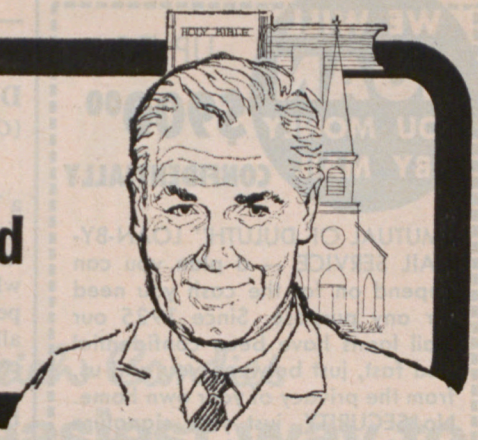
Educational AV Materials Sales Rise 10.8 Percent in 1972

Total sales of nontextbook instructional materials rose to $214.7 million in 1972, an increase of 10.8 percent over 1971, according to a report by the Educational Media Producers Council. The survey includes information gathered from more than 217 audiovisual producers, from small filmstrip houses to the largest educational publishers.

The report shows building level materials sales—traditionally those materials whose unit cost is modest enough to permit acquisition by, and storage within, individual school buildings—continued to widen their lead over the higher priced 16mm films, commanding

(Continued on page 98)

You Can Understand The Bible



MANY never begin a study of the Bible because they believe the average man cannot understand it. The Scriptures teach, however, that we *can* understand the will of God. Speaking of Jesus, Mark tells us that "the common people heard him gladly" (Mark 12:37). In the parable of the sower Jesus compares the seed sown on good ground with the person who "heareth the word, and understandeth it" (Matthew 13:23). The Apostle Paul writes, "Wherefore be ye not foolish, but understand what the will of the Lord is" (Ephesians 5:17). The people of Berea are commended because "they received the word with all readiness of mind, examining the scriptures daily, whether these things were so" (Acts 17:11).

Our responsibility is to study in order to understand and obey the will of God (II Timothy 2:15). We can help one another as Philip helped the Eunuch (Acts 8) and as Paul commanded Timothy to do (II Timothy 2:2), but we must be careful not to add to the Word of God or to take away from it (Revelation 22:18, 19). Everyone needs to compare what he hears with what he reads in the Scriptures, for some claim to speak in God's name whose messages do not agree with the Word of God.

As we learn His will, we will want to obey Him. The Bible teaches that we must believe on Christ as the Son of God (John 8:21, 24); repent of our sins (Acts 2:38); be baptized for the forgiveness of sins (Mark 16:15, 16; Romans 6:3, 4). In our obedience Christ promises to add us to His church which He purchased with His own blood (Acts 2:47; Acts 20:28). It is our privilege as Christians to serve Him faithfully as long as we live and to be with Him throughout eternity (I Peter 4:16; John 17:24).

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DEVELOPMENTS
(*Continued*)

a 74.8 percent share of the total educational media market. Building level materials sales increased 13.7 percent, while 16mm film sales rose only 3.3 percent in 1972 but continued to lead all audiovisual materials in dollar expenditures.

Since 1966 (the first year of this industrywide survey), audiovisual materials sales to education have increased 81.9 percent, making strong inroads into the traditionally textbook-oriented education market. Sales of the textbook, which remains the dominant instructional medium, have increased by 22.7 percent during the same period.

Americans Becoming Better Educated 1970 Census Shows

Americans are increasingly becoming better educated, according to a Bureau of Census report that presents detailed statistics from the 1970 census on educational attainment. Eight of 10 persons 20 and 21 years old have at least a high school education; among persons 30 to 34 years old, 69 percent had finished high school; among those 55 to 64 years old, 40 percent; and of those 75 years and older, only 24 percent had done so.

Over half the population 25 years of age and older have completed high school. Among the native-born of native parentage, 57 percent of whites, 31 percent of blacks, 33 percent of American Indians, and 56 percent of persons of other races have completed high school. Among the foreign-born, 36 percent of those from Europe, 32 percent of those from Mexico and Central and South America, and 46 percent of those from other countries have a high school education.

Survey Reports Decline in Women's Colleges

A national trend toward coeducation continues, according to a survey by the College Research Center of the Educational Testing Service. Of 300 women's colleges in 1960, only half were so classified by 1972. Forty percent of the original group had officially become coed, and 10 percent had closed their doors altogether or had announced plans to do so.

Among the 146 institutions that did not change their status, 90 said they were committed to remain women's colleges. The others reported they were still studying the situation.

The survey found that Roman Catholic and public institutions led the way toward coeducation. Only 73 out of an original group of 185 Roman Catholic institutions continued to operate as women's colleges in 1972, and 27 others went out of existence.

Most resistant to giving up their roles as women's colleges were the more "prestigious" independent colleges. Only 11 of 41 independent, four-year schools reported a change to coed status since 1960, and only seven of 21 two-year independent colleges had become coed. But most of these colleges did not prohibit admission of men to undergraduate programs.

The trend toward coeducation has not been restricted to the women's colleges, however. The Center notes that, as the 1970's began, seven out of 10 previously for-men-only, independent universities and colleges were actively recruiting women.

New Fund Established To Protect Children's Rights

The Children's Defense Fund, a new national children's rights project, seeks reform in the education, classification, treatment, and care of children in elementary and secondary schools and other public and private institutions. The Fund, an arm of the civil rights-oriented Washington Research Project, will give priority to the problems of the disadvantaged.

Headquartered in Washington, DC, and Cambridge, Massachusetts, the Fund will employ a variety of advocacy tools, including litigation; organizing of children, parents, and other community groups; investigatory research and reporting; and monitoring and evaluating of federal, state, and local children's programs.

Its first report, scheduled for release this fall, deals with the number of children in the seven-to-15-year-old age group who are excluded from school and the reasons for their exclusion.

Colleges Report Decline in Foreign Language Study

The study of foreign languages in colleges is declining, according to a survey by the Modern Language Association of America (MLA). Preliminary

figures show college enrollment in foreign language courses down 10.0 percent between the fall of 1970 and 1972.

Enrollments in French dropped 19.0 percent; in German, 13.3 percent; in Italian, 3.7 percent; in Russian, 0.3 percent; in Spanish, 7.2 percent; and in Latin, 12.3 percent. Only Ancient Greek and the so-called exotic languages, such as Hebrew and Chinese, are holding their own or rising.

According to MLA, a basic cause for the decline is the dropping of foreign language requirements in many colleges, a trend which became quite widespread in the late 1960's as part of a general resistance to required courses. A few colleges have also eliminated language requirements for admission.

U.S. Students Do Well in International Testing

Students in U.S. elementary, junior, and senior high schools did at least as well as, and in many cases better than, their counterparts in the schools of 19 out of 20 other nations on achievement tests of science, reading comprehension, and literature. The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) administered the tests on a worldwide basis. Participating nations included Australia, Chile, France, India, Japan, Sweden, and West Germany, among others.

The results showed a marked contrast to the results of an IEA study published in 1967 in which U.S. students performed lower than their counterparts in other nations in mathematics.

The latest testing involved 258,000 students in 9,700 schools. In this country, 17,561 students in 522 public and nonpublic schools were involved.

IEA researchers at Teachers College, Columbia University, the U.S. Headquarters for the study, point out that in evaluating the results of the 1967 tests, evaluators failed to emphasize the fact that U.S. schools retain a greater portion of students full-time—especially in high school—than do the schools of any other participating country. Here, a relatively unselected group of students reaches the end of secondary education, while in most other countries, conscious selection processes operate to retain only the ablest students at the high school level. In the current studies that factor was taken into consideration.

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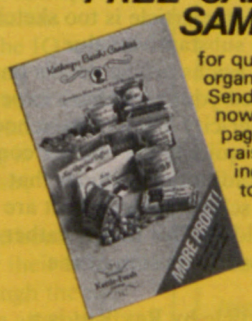

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BOOKS

J. McVicker Hunt (editor), **Human Intelligence.** New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books, 1972. 283 pp. $2.95, paper. $7.95, hard cover.

For those who wish some insight into the complexities and challenges surrounding the current work in intelligence but do not want a mass of technical jargon and mazes of scientific methodologies, *Human Intelligence* is highly recommended. The essays it contains, which originally appeared in *Transaction* magazine, are written by leading scholars in a number of special areas.

The book is in four parts. Part I contains three essays on background factors dealing with genetics, the role of experience, and two kinds of intelligence. The essay on genetics by Jerry Hirsch and the one on experiential factors by J. McVicker Hunt are extremely relevant discussions of the major issues. In the third essay entitled "Intelligence—Why It Grows, Why It Declines," John Horn makes a distinction between fluid intelligence, which is relatively independent of education and experience, and crystallized intelligence, which is the product of experience. He then develops several important implications of such a distinction for early childhood experiences and education.

Part II deals with social class and education in four articles. Karl Taeuber is concerned with the impact of migration patterns in urbanization and suburbanization and their influence upon educational processes. Jules Henry discusses achievement, hope, and time and hints at some potentially significant variables which could influence education and competence in poverty areas. Unfortunately, the article is too sketchy to be of much substantive value.

The Estelle Fuchs article details one well-intentioned young teacher's experience in an inner-city elementary school. It reveals how quickly the teacher comes to adopt the traditional attitudes that the deficits in school achievement are due to the child and his family rather than to the possible failure of the school.

The final article by Ray Rist is a chilling and frightening documentation of how, within the first few days of entering kindergarten, ghetto children are categorized into different types of learners. The categories are developed not on the basis of any objectively measured potential but rather on the teacher's knowledge of the child's home situation (on welfare or not), dress, mannerisms, body odor, use of Standard English, etc. Once established, the child's category is passed on and maintained up through the second grade, the point at which the study stopped.

Such categorization was shown to profoundly affect the quality and quantity of teacher/student interaction, and to change behavior and self-concept—particularly of the children placed in the lower "caste" in the classroom. Professor Rist suggests there is a self-fulfilling prophecy in ghetto education: label some as potential failures, then spend more time, effort, and rewarding behavior on the potential successes, and ultimately the failures fail, the successes succeed.

Part III contains two articles which discuss the concept of creativity and its relationship to intelligence. In the first article, educators will find challenging the research work of Michael Wallach and Nathan Kogan on the classroom and play setting behavior of four groups of children who differ in intelligence and creativity (high intelligence/high creativity, high intelligence/low creativity, low intelligence/high creativity, low intelligence/low creativity). For example, the low intelligence/high creativity children fear evaluation and therefore perform poorly whenever evaluational standards are a prominent part of the setting.

In the second article, Jacob Getzels and Mihaly Csikszentmihaly report on college art students and some of their behaviors which appear to be reliable predictors of creativity.

Part IV deals with the processes of change. George Albee makes a strong plea for nonmedical treatment for the retarded, which seems to be somewhat out of context in this book. The next article by Robert Hamblin et al is a much too brief account of how they use operant learning techniques to change the behavior of hyperaggressive boys, autistic children, and extremely shy, withdrawn ghetto children and to teach two-year-olds to read. Walter Schaefer et al have presented a thoughtful and critical analysis of tracking in American high schools, which they

suggest can result in programming for social class. Unfortunately, the only alternative they discuss is the New Careers model, which has its own drawbacks. However, their clear discussion of the problems in a tracking system is of merit in itself.

In the final article, Ivar Berg asks the question: Are academic credentials important for doing the job—or just for getting it? Many readers can probably correctly answer the question, but Berg offers some fascinating data that have some significant implications for both business and education.

Most of the articles have a list of suggested readings. Unfortunately, however, there is no index, and this detracts from the general usefulness of the book. Furthermore, it is annoying to read references in the body of the text and not be able to find them listed in detail elsewhere.

A second book recently published dealing with intelligence is **The Fallacy of IQ** (New York: The Third Press, 1973. 184 pp. $7.95, hardcover) edited by Carl Senna. Intended as a major critique of Jensen's position, it contains three or four worthwhile chapters and several others that are extremely poor.

Two chapters by Richard Lewontin and by David Layzer contain excellent discussions of the concept of heritability and criticize Jensen's use of that theory. They do not do as well in attacking Jensen's position on compensatory educational programs. In fact, they seem to have misunderstood Jensen's arguments because he stressed time and time again that the educational deficiencies of black children are the fault of the schools and that these children who are currently performing below grade/age levels have the potential for doing much better. Jensen's conclusion was that we could not boost IQ, but we could boost achievement.

The book contains a short but thoughtful article by Christopher Jencks which first appeared in the *New Republic*. In this essay Jencks stresses that IQ has a relatively modest influence in determining a person's life chances: "Low IQ's are not the cause of America's racial problems and higher IQ's would not solve these problems. Any white reader who doubts this should simply ask himself whether he would trade the genes which made his skin white for genes which would raise his IQ 15 points."

David Robinson in an article titled "If you're so rich, you must be smart" makes a number of observations concerning racism and IQ and concludes that the IQ test is "not sophisticated enough to be useful in drawing conclusions about the way the world really works or should work," thus implying we should do away with the test. Unfortunately what he seems to be overlooking is the issue someone has stated: Tests are not unfair; life is unfair, and tests measure the results.

In perhaps the most interesting chapter of the book, Jane Mercer and Wayne Brown report the results of their extensive study on racial differences in intelligence. Through the use of sophisticated statistical techniques, they have attempted to hold a large number of variables constant and then compare

(*Continued on page* 102)

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BOOKS

(*Continued*)

Mexican American, Black, and Anglo children on IQ measures. They conclude that approximately 20 percent of the observed differences among the IQ test scores of children of the same ethnic group can be explained by sociocultural background and 80 percent of the variance by genetic and other unmeasured sociocultural factors (similar to Jensen's finding) and that differences *between* ethnic groups can be explained statistically by differences in the groups' environmental backgrounds.

This chapter includes an excellent discussion of the background of IQ testing, the nature and content of IQ tests, some implications of their findings for educational planning, and the arguments for abandoning the IQ test. The authors believe that the IQ tests should be retained (in a book titled *The Fallacy of IQ*?) because it is important to know how well a child is doing in relation to his peers and because it helps locate individuals in need of supplementary programs. However, they stress the need to educate people to the realistic uses of test results.

The book includes an inadequate review by Stephen Strickland of the very important Milwaukee Project and a highly rhetorical and moralizing chapter of dubious value written by the editor, Carl Senna. There are no intellectual arguments presented in this article which offer any persuasive evidence against Jensen's position or for abolishing the use of IQ tests.

Reviewed by **Richard David Young,** professor of Clinical Psychology, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Philip A. Cusick, **Inside High School: The Student's World.** New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1973. 256 pp. $3.95, paper.

Cusick paints, for the most part, a remarkably accurate picture of the high school world. His analysis of the group phenomenon, class discussions, extracurricular activities, time-consuming maintenance details, and student-teacher interaction rings especially true. I tend to believe that the "group" is not quite so inimical to the learning process as Cusick maintains.

The bulk of Cusick's data is drawn from observations about the "athlete's group" and another group which practices petty thievery. That neither group is typical of most high school cliques should be kept in mind when reading *Inside High School*. This limitation, however, is minor and many keen insights are made, most notably in the section concerning "Some Particulars of Classroom Interaction."

Cusick is not very helpful in suggesting answers to the dilemmas he describes so well in the high schools. He falls back on the rather trite and fatalistic line that the "conflicts, inconsistencies, and even hypocrisies evident in our public schools . . . are probably endemic to us and our civilization." It seems odd that Cusick can both approve of the present system and also affirm that it thwarts student-teacher interaction action and requires only a minimal compliance with learning processes. Indeed, if today's educational system, as Cusick describes it, is our plight, we should be vigorously searching for radical solutions.

Reviewed by **Edward F. Buffie,** Class of 1976, Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

James A. Poteet, **Behavior Modification: A Practical Guide for Teachers.** Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1973. 104 pp. $2.95, paper.

Teachers are searching for alternative strategies to achieve a more positive classroom environment while, at the same time, maintaining effective classroom control. In this book, James A. Poteet proposes, in concise and simple language, a comprehensive approach to behavior modification as a method to achieve satisfactory classroom management and promote positive attitudes. Written for students in teacher education and teachers presently in the field, the book explains the theory and the practice of behavior modification, using many examples of child behavior and typical classroom situations.

The first chapter involves the reader in an analysis of his teaching styles and educational setting. The purpose of the analysis is to sharpen the observation skills of the teacher so that student behavior can be accurately specified and described. With this information in hand, the teacher can decide which behaviors require modification. The remaining chapters systematically take the reader through the know how of

(*Continued on page* 104)

RESEARCH CLUES

(Continued)

How well does group discussion work in changing made-up minds?

When minds have been made up beforehand, group discussion becomes an arena for arguing for "my" position rather than for working out a right or rational solution. In peer groups without leaders, free discussion works to reduce agreement on best answers, whereas systematic or developmental discussion tends to increase it. But, in any event, better answers come when discussion takes place before personal decision making has had a chance to take place.

The subjects of the carefully conducted study were management personnel. But there are many implications for setting up problem-solving sessions with students—and perhaps for planning faculty meetings!

See: Norman R. F. Maier. "Prior Commitment as a Deterrent to Group Problem Solving." *Personnel Psychology* 26: 117-26; Spring 1973.

Should public service be a part of the high school curriculum?

It well could be. Best estimate is that four million young people could be employed full time for a year in jobs that would help out in a wide variety of essential public services: health, environmental, social, protection, and educational.

According to the data assembled by the staff of the American Youth in the Mid-Seventies Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, a great need exists to add something new and challenging to the repertoire of youth options. Early employment is increasingly hard to find, teenage marriage is on the decline, military service is an unwanted and plainly declining option, schools and community colleges have more of the young but are hard put to hold onto them.

The authors are inclined to favor part-time rather than full-time public service and to see a need to provide pay for some but not most students. Also, they feel the learning that takes place in such projects deserves as much attention as the social contribution the students may make.

See: Robert J. Havighurst and others. "American Youth in the Mid-Seventies." *NASSP Bulletin* 56: 1-13; November 1972.

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BOOKS

(Continued)

behavior modification including measuring, understanding, modifying, and evaluating behavior.

A case study is provided in the appendix for use by those who are not presently teaching. However, the author urges those currently engaged in teaching to utilize their situations as a practical beginning to a fuller understanding of the principles of behavior modification.

The brevity of the book in no way detracts from its completeness. In fact, because of its succinct form, it is particularly useful as an easy access to information.

Reviewed by **Judith L. Cooper,** who recently received a doctorate in educational administration from Indiana University, Bloomington.

R. Freeman Butts, **The Education of the West: A Formative Chapter in the History of Civilization.** New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1973. xvi + 631 pp. $10.95, hard cover.

A Cultural History of Western Education (1947, 1955) has been a standard textbook in the history of education for 25 years. In the mid-sixties Professor Butts set about revising this book. What has resulted is not a revision but a new and essentially different book, which he has titled *The Education of the West.*

In 1955, Butts was concerned that democracy and democratic ideals of education had been and still were under attack throughout the world. He pleaded for a reassessment of the strengths and weaknesses of our educational traditions. This he felt could be done, at least in part, through historical study. Placing a great deal of emphasis on education in the United States, he presented a rather traditional chronological survey of the dominant institutions and beliefs of Western culture and how he thought education had affected that culture.

In *The Education of the West,* Professor Butts turns from a more ethnocentric to a more thematic approach. Instead of "culture," "civilization" becomes his major concern. Civilization he defines as applying ". . . to those transforming processes of social change marked significantly by urbanization, social differentiation, political institutionalization, and written knowledge."

BOOKS

(*Continued*)

After acknowledging the dangers inherent in broad generalizations and oversimplification, he claims that there have been at least three great transformation in the human career. These, in order of their occurrence, have been (a) "the evolutionary process during which prehumans came to form human folk societies," (b) "the civilization process during which folk societies adopted or are still taking on the characteristics of urban literate society and culture," and (c) "the modernization process in the course of which traditional folk societies and traditional civilizations adopted or are still taking on the characteristics of modern civilization."

In his Epilogue, Professor Butts suggests we may have begun yet a fourth great transformation in the third quarter of this century. He doesn't know how to label it and he is unable to chart its course. Nevertheless, he points out the enormous changes that have been brought about in the last 25 years as the result of the "application of knowledge, of science, of technology, and of social organization to practical affairs by the highly trained products of Western educational systems."

He says that the essential question remains: Will modern civilization, which draws so heavily upon Western influence, disintegrate or will it somehow "manage to achieve a more just, humane, and equitable condition of life for the peoples of the world?"

Can *Homo scholasticus* transform himself into *Homo ecumenicus*? Yes, maintains Professor Butts, "but only if Western education can divest itself of its own ethnocentric and narrow nationalistic preoccupations and infuse itself with a world orientation that seeks to enhance the best, not the worst, of modernity it has helped to produce."

The great transformations are dealt with in this book under four rubrics: "Education and the Civilization-Building Process," "Education in the Building of Western Civilization," "The Florescence of Modern Education in the West," and "The Dispersion of Western Education." All this is about 570 pages, excluding a selective bibliography and extensive index.

Don't expect a book without weaknesses. You can, however, count on an

(*Continued on page* 108)

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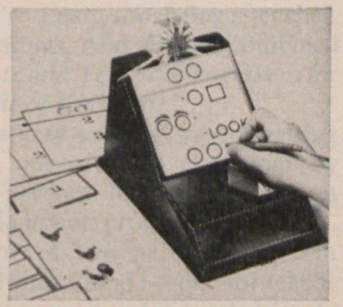

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Our 75th Year

COMMENT

By **RICHARD P. BAILEY**
President, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

□ **Pompous college presidents (you** probably know one or two) are prone to assume a deity stance, glare down at mortals, and thunder-clear their throats as they inform the high school what its product should be.

Although technically one of the gang from Olympus, I am not a card-carrying deity. Having never even passed my immortality prelims, I'm not at all sure what the high school product should be. Human, I feel sure, and quite possibly literate, but I don't know which of the various curricular tracks is most likely to do the best job. College-bound? Vocational? Technical? Life preparation? Citizenship? Comprehensive? Who knows?

There is a kind of high school senior, though, with whom I am comfortable just as there is one with whom I am uncomfortable. I don't really know how they get that way. But here, from campus, are some college entrance "requirements"—unauthorized; unimportant; and lacking the approval of trustees, faculty, alumni, students, the janitorial staff, and my secretary.

Sophistication doesn't appeal to me at all, and I particularly dislike it among the young. Robert Frost once suggested to a friend that he should be washed in milk to renew his innocence. If it would work, I should like to see every sophisticated youngster take a lactic bath, regularly.

I have had electronic guitars and the heavy beat up to, and beyond, my suffering ears. If any student uses the word "relevant" again in my presence as a synonym for "I want," I shall be tempted to throw a college catalog at him. Pot, coed beds, and philosophy seen through the eyes of a sea gull make me "uptight."

The young man I like to see matriculate has not so specialized his interests and experiences that he seeks the college which "fits" him. When he admits, "I don't know," or modestly declares, "I'd like to try," my heart leaps up. That modesty allows us college folks to be a part of his continuing educational experiences.

When a young woman brings her clarinet to campus and joins the pep band, I feel like leading cheers. My great hope is that she hasn't starred in a dozen dramatic productions; that she didn't begin dating in third grade, dancing in fourth, making out in fifth, and taking the pill in junior high; and that she loves her parents, adores her kid brother, and can't wait to report back to her friends among the high school teaching staff.

"Slow down," I cry out to the young people who come to our campus. "There is really no hurry to experience everything before you lapse into the senility of age 30."

Rousseau wrote: "Regard all delays as so much time gained. Leave childhood to ripen in your children." Yea, Jean Jacques. If only you had earned your doctorate, you could have been a college counselor.

How one accomplishes this social retardation while encouraging the inquisitive and creative mind is not my problem. It's the problem of the terribly mortal elementary and secondary teachers. We college presidents have enough to worry about without adding precollege preparation to our official burdens. □

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BOOKS

(*Continued*)

intellectually stimulating experience if you choose to read the book from cover to cover, or if you choose to read only those parts that happen to fit your fancy. It is to be doubted that you can do better if you wish a general understanding of the development of Western education.

Reviewed by **Joe Park,** professor of education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.

Allen Graubard, **Free the Children: Radical Reform and the Free School Movement.** New York, Pantheon Books, 1973. 306 pp./notes. $7.95.

This book presents the free school movement in precise and clear phraseology. Without a doubt, Graubard's professional training in philosophy and political science carry over into his writing. *Free the Children* should be considered a prime resource for all those interested in educational reform because of its comprehensive treatment and description of the *realpolitik* of the free school movement.

Graubard begins his book by developing a theoretical background for the free school movement, attempting to grasp the elusive meaning of, as he phrases it, the ". . . messy notion of freedom." Citing such people as A. S. Neill, Charles Silberman, John Holt, Neil Postman, Charles Weingartner, and George Dennison, Graubard accentuates positive approaches to school reform rather than falling into the abyss of massive criticism.

The lengthy second chapter of the book presents descriptive anecdotes and narratives concerning the operation of several elementary and secondary free schools in America: New School of Plainfield, Vermont; Second Foundation of Minneapolis; Independence High School of Newark, New Jersey; and California free schools in Santa Barbara and Oakland. The reports were obtained from personnel connected with each school and are commendable because of their honesty and openness.

The descriptions enable the reader to sense more clearly the problems of running a free school. Graubard's comments about the narratives also clarify the theoretical position presented in the first of the book. The topics (a) starting free schools, (b) their funding, (c) educational methodologies,

BOOKS

(*Continued*)

(d) curriculum, (e) student activities, (f) governance, (g) staffing, (h) space utilization, (i) public relations, and (j) evaluation are treated in a comprehensive fashion.

Reviewed by **Russell J. Cooper,** Department of School Administration, School of Education, University of Missouri—St. Louis.

Barbara Grizzuti Harrison, **Unlearning the Lie—Sexism in School.** New York: Liveright, 1973. 176 pp. $6.95, hard cover.

Barbara Grizzuti Harrison is a free-lance writer and mother of two children who attend an interracial, parent-teacher cooperative school of approximately 300 students. She has written a free-flowing, provocative narrative that is critical of the sexism which helps to stereotype boys and girls into specific gender-based roles. She discusses countermeasures taken in her children's school during a two-year period.

In September 1970, the author became a member of the "Sex-Role Committee" which was created by feminists at the Woodward School in Brooklyn. The purpose of the committee was to help its children unlearn the sexist lie that "girls are innately passive, submissive, supportive, domestic, and powerless and that their nature is to need, to want, to wait; that boys are innately dominant, achieving, adventurous, aggressive, and that their nature is to seek, to control, and to conquer."

The style is direct, open, and thoughtful. A chronological format tells how the committee began with a confused question-asking period, and then, over a period of months, gradually began to approach the problem of sexist roles in a viable manner. Observations were made of sexist role modeling found in the classroom, home, history books, school library, and the media.

The author pulls no punches as she presents the contrasting points of view of committee members, faculty, the Black Studies group, and others concerned with sexist education at Woodward. Authentic elements of anger, frustration, intimidation, tragicomedy, personal hurt, and friendship are interwoven in the numerous cited interviews.

Reviewed by **Marylee Griffith,** fifth grade teacher, Childs Elementary School, Bloomington, Indiana.

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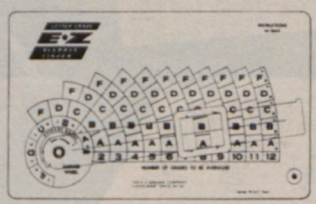

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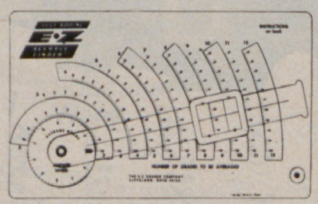

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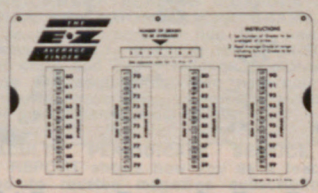

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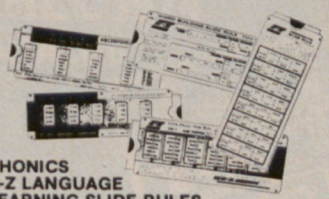

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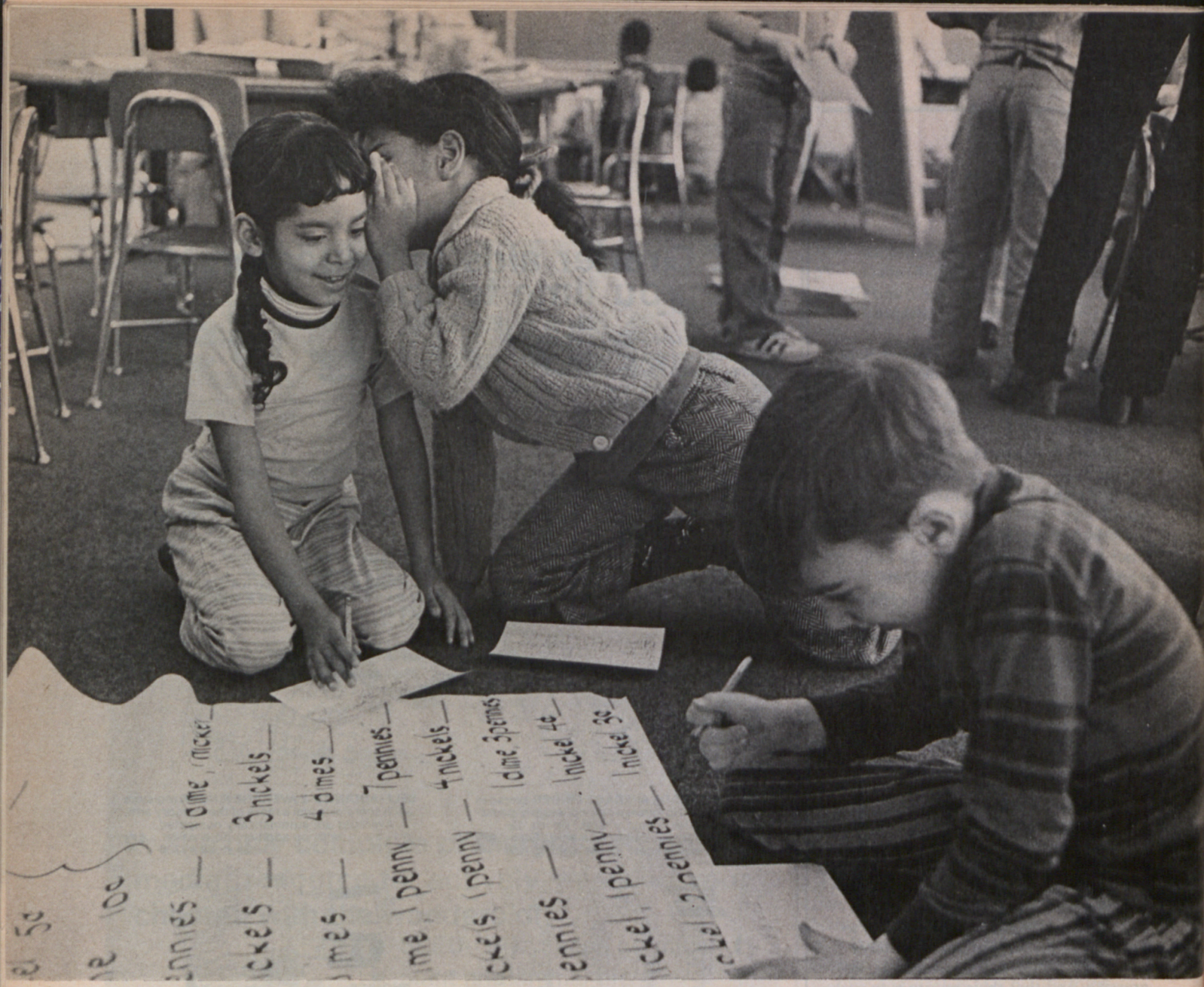

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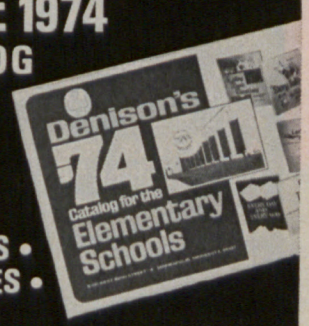

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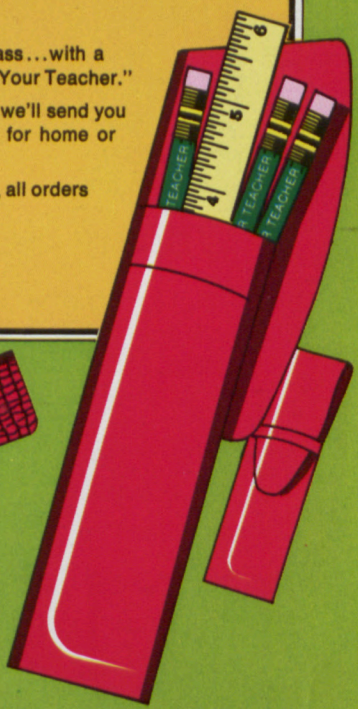

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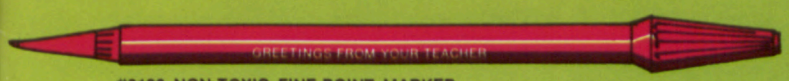

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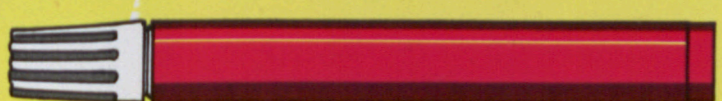

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	#0192 GOOD GROOMING SET	17¢ each	3¢ each	
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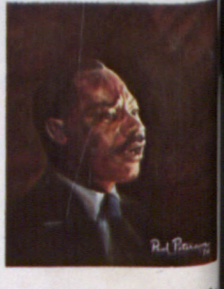

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